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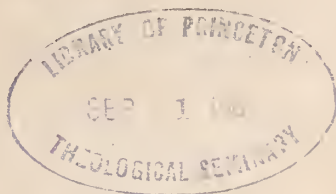




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VOL. VI.

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VOL. VI. — MAY, 1837. — No. 1.

ART. I. *Prospects of China: with remarks respecting the present state of the empire, and the measures which the people of Christendom ought to pursue towards this country.*

FROM time immemorial the Chinese have stood alone. They have been, and are still, an isolated people. This, doubtless, has resulted in part from their own choice, and in part from circumstances more or less beyond their control. Differing from the rest of the world in their language, laws, government, domestic habits, religious rites, &c., they have not deemed it expedient or practicable to form, with the rest of the world, those friendly relations which afford the philanthropist the most ready means for bringing the people of every land and of every name into that state of improvement—that state of millennial peace and prosperity—foretold by ancient seers. Though but partially acquainted with their history, we see sufficient cause for that exclusive policy and that isolated attitude, which they have hitherto so signally maintained, in direct opposition to the fundamental principles of society. No nation is without its peculiarities; nor even an individual. These, however, do not exempt either the one or the other from those more permanent traits of character—those intellectual qualities and feelings—common to the whole race of man. A full description of all these peculiarities, in the Chinese, would afford the philosopher many valuable hints for the direction of his inquiries, and form a curious chapter in the general history of the world. But omitting, for the present, to give even a sketch of these peculiarities, we must advert to those traits of mind—the characteristic habits of thought and action—in which the Chinese agrees with his species in every clime and age. To one overwhelmed with grief it matters little whether black or white, or some other color, is the badge of mourning. If his parents have been taken from him, and he is left without friends or the means of comfort and support, the child must

feel his orphanage; and when he is famishing for food he will not care whether it is served to him with his own native *chop sticks*, or in any other manner, provided he can allay his hunger. Probably the Chinese have more peculiarities than can be found among any other people; this, however, does not exempt them from feeling grief, pain reproach, honor, hope, fear, and the like, as keenly as any other mortals. Now it is from a thorough knowledge of these permanent qualities, and from whatever may be effected through them, that we are to calculate future changes among the Chinese; while with their peculiarities we have little more to do than so to understand them as to prevent their hindering any direct and proper action on the former. In short, the simple object is to meet and treat the Chinese as men—human beings—not celestial, nor infernal.

An example or two will illustrate this sentiment. The first, in importance, is found in the language. Diplomatic correspondence, everywhere throughout the whole civilized world, requires the most careful attention. Errors, however slight, even in the style of address or in any other similar points, seldom pass unnoticed. In order, therefore, to secure accuracy it is always deemed requisite, that he who is employed to draft such documents be not only a scholar, but one, also, who is well versed in the punctilios of diplomacy. In all the correspondence hitherto carried on with the Chinese, where have been the diplomatists equal to their task? What have those known of the usages and manners of the Chinese court who have undertaken to draft state papers? As for those who have been employed to translate such papers, if we except one or two individuals, what have they known of the style to be adopted? And in the presentation of official documents, and in endeavoring to communicate with the sovereign of this country, what errors have there not been committed? Even at the present hour, were an address to be made to the throne, or a case to be laid before the court at Peking, where are the men fitted for such undertakings? We know not even one thoroughly qualified for so difficult a service, or who would without reluctance undertake it. On the point of etiquette, “the ceremonies to be performed,” wherein so much ill-will, strife, bad faith, and bad conduct, have originated, no less difficulty exists. Were an envoy to be sent from the court of Peking to that of Paris, with instructions to conform to the usages of that country, does any one suppose, that, on his arrival there, he would be expected to change his own costume, diet, or style of bowing, for that of the French? Each, in his way, would be a match for the other. But what could be more absurd than a grave Chinese undertaking to imitate the manners of the Parisian court? Who could think of recommending or attempting it? In the mission to the *Tourgouths*, north of the Caspian, sent by Kanghe, instructions were given to conform to the usages of the country through which it passed and the court to which it went; but in so doing, surely the envoy was not expected to abandon the usages of his own native land, much less allow himself to be made a plaything to the dishonor of his sovereign.

In both these particulars—language and etiquette—it is requisite, chiefly, that established usages be not outraged, while all honor is given to whomsoever it is due. So far, therefore, as it may be necessary to secure this end, national peculiarities should be regarded, but no further. In a visit to the Chinese court it certainly would not be necessary for the foreigner to shave his head, plait his hair, or prostrate himself in the dust. The Chinese are shrewd observers of character; and the blunders and foibles which they have witnessed will not soon be forgotten. Too many sad examples already exist; this however, is not the place to cite them; and we have adverted to them, *en passant*, merely to prevent, if we can, the idea being any longer held, that such childish freaks deserve any other consideration than sovereign contempt.

The question has often been asked, what ought Europeans to do, what course ought they to pursue, with regard to the Chinese? To act as hitherto, is to “do nothing.” Much, indeed, which has been done, had better have been left unessayed. In order to give the question, stated above, a fair answer it is needful to glance, for a moment, at the present state of the country and character of the people. An empire of great extent, containing 360,000,000 of people, with *the one man* at its head, declares itself the source and centre of all earthly good, while all the rest of the world is regarded and treated as barbarian and hostile. Around the imperial throne are collected the most able men in the nation, ranked and honored respectively according to the influence which they have been able to acquire and exercise. To these great ministers of state the affairs of the empire are chiefly entrusted, all they do or propose, however, being subject to the will of their master—the emperor. But neither he nor his councils are, so far as we can see, much influenced by the voice of public opinion, except when famine, or pestilence, or inundations, or some similar cause, wakes them to deeds of public charity—if what stern necessity demands can be so called. The great mass of the people, constantly and laboriously employed in agricultural, commercial, and mechanical pursuits, in order to acquire necessary food and raiment, know but little, and care less, of the authority that is over them. Many are very poor; still more are very ignorant; and being both poor and ignorant, are vicious in the extreme. In such circumstances the people feel no interest in international affairs, and scarcely know that any other nations, beside their own, exist. This government stands, not by the voice of public opinion, but by its own mastery: and when that mastery is lost, and it is daily becoming weaker and weaker, there must come a change of dynasty—an event we deprecate, because, judging from the analogy of all past times, it will be accompanied with immense havoc and bloodshed. Moreover, such a direful issue seems unnecessary, if the powers that be at once awake to their obligations, and promptly discharge the duties that rest upon them. In China nothing of good can be hoped for from a mere change of masters. It is not, therefore, either a change of the dynasty, or of the forms of government, for which the philanthropist can labor, or even hope. While,

then, with all those who sincerely love their fellow-men, we must deprecate these changes, and all the means that might be employed to effect them, we hail with approbation every wise effort, however feeble or indirect, made for the removal of ignorance, poverty, crime, and wretchedness, on the one hand; and on the other, for the increase and extension of knowledge, virtue, and every good.

What can be more humiliating to human reason—to say nothing of its wickedness, than to see a great nation bowing in adoration to images of wood and stone, or before man who is mortal and fallible as ourselves? Such conduct cannot exist, we think, except where there is either entire ignorance or forgetfulness of Him, in whom we live, and whom we are bound to serve. Four thousand years have afforded full opportunity here for all the false systems of man's device to work freely their legitimate effects. They have done so; and we now see their results. Not two centuries ago, a thicker darkness and grosser superstitions enveloped the British isles, than probably, up to that period, had ever overshadowed the land of Sinim. Woden, and Thor, and others of less renown, were then England's acknowledged deities; and the King of kings had no altars, no temples, no worshippers there, until the pure word of Jehovah was promulgated. The wisdom and prowess of ancient Rome, even in the zenith of her glory, did little, comparatively, for the improvement of conquered nations. Such conquests as she achieved are often hurtful, because they are gained by the destruction of much property and life, without any equivalent. Many times has China been overrun, conquered, subjugated. A foreigner now sits on her throne. Changes have succeeded changes without any amelioration of the condition of the people, without the increase of knowledge, while, in the process of time, many new oppressions and other evils have accumulated. It is true, that, in the workings of divine Providence, good may spring from these acknowledged wrongs. But without the intervention of those means, ordained of God, and revealed in his word, for the world's regeneration, few and partial improvements will ever be effected. Not all the powers on earth, without the purifying and ennobling influence of the gospel, could ever have effected the great good which the millions of the British empire, and other millions by their instrumentality, now enjoy.

This allusion is made to the influence of truth and the principles of the divine government, and their effects on the destinies of nations, because they afford, beyond all controversy, the surest data for determining the future extension of those privileges which are the birth-right of man, but which are here denied him. And what are those privileges? In a word, they are all those blessings of personal freedom, knowledge, liberty, and peace, now possessed by the most favored nations. Nay more, for much remains to be done ere the conduct of rulers, towards each other, and towards those under them, will be characterized by that good faith, magnanimity, and kindness, which become those who are members of one great family, living under the care of one universal Father. No nation on earth has yet done for itself,

much less for others, one half what it ought to do, or will do, when both the rulers and the ruled learn to act according to the Christian's code—the New Testament. Then, 'to cheat the king,' 'to oppress the people,' 'to get the better of other states,' and so forth, no one will desire or attempt.

We will now enumerate some of the objects which, we think, should be kept in view and sought for steadily and perseveringly, until they are obtained.

1. Ministers plenipotentiary should reside in Peking, with all the securities, immunities, and honors, which are usually secured to such functionaries among equal and independent sovereignties. These would afford a safe and direct channel of communication between the Chinese court and the governments of the west, and could not fail of being equally satisfactory to all. Such a measure would relieve this government from many fears and perplexities, and from that distrust which is now so manifest in all its documents respecting foreigners. It may be remarked here, that while many of the Chinese, being entirely ignorant of the extent and power of foreign countries, view those who come from them with indifference, others, who are better informed, watch them with a jealous eye, fearing lest they may ere long become the masters of the country. Witness the late memorial of counselor Choo Tsun.

2. All the parts of the empire should be made accessible, as they once were in the reign of Kanghe, to foreign vessels of every nation, under such regulations as will guaranty to the government their just duties and customs, and to merchants, both native and foreign, such security as will enable them to prosecute their business in a safe and honorable manner. This measure would be hailed with applause by multitudes of the people, since it would not only create new demands for their own commodities, but supply them with many valuable articles from other countries cheaper than they can now be procured. For some kinds of manufactures, woollens (for example), to supply the people of the northern provinces, the demand would be greatly increased.

3. Consuls should be appointed at several of the principal ports, clothed with authority sufficient to protect the foreigner, and to afford the government a guaranty that each and every person belonging to their respective nations shall be held amenable, in open court, the consul himself being in attendance and consenting, to answer for his behavior.

4. Every facility should be allowed for acquiring a thorough knowledge of the language, laws, and usages of the Chinese, and for the preservation of health and property, with a free use of all the ordinary conveniences requisite for the transportation of goods, traveling, &c., on perfect equality and at the same rate of charges with the natives of the country. In short, the same rights and privileges allowed to Chinese, in common with all other foreigners, in England and America, should be secured to every foreigner in this country.

These are great and important objects,—especially when viewed in comparison with the few and slender privileges hitherto granted to foreigners. When secured by treaty, as all such rights and immunities ought to be, a thousand minor questions about “ceremonies,” &c., will be laid in oblivion. The grand principle hitherto acted upon, is to restrict every one as much as possible, consistently with the bare existence of a limited commerce. To dilate on the existing annoyances, wrongs, and deprivations, or even to enumerate them, forms no part of this article. We have often spoken of some of them, and may do so again if occasion requires; but are prepared to endure them, and somewhat patiently, when we see how much greater are the evils to which the native is subject. This, however, shall never prevent our protesting against these abuses, or hinder us from pleading for the removal of whatever is evil and for the introduction of whatever is beneficial. How long all salutary changes will be deferred, and present wrongs perpetuated, we cannot predict. The state of affairs here may become much worse than it now is. Left unprotected by their own governments as the foreigners ever have been, they may yet find another *Black Hole*, in the narrow factories they now inhabit. “It would not be at all strange, if, in an hour of excitement occasioned by homicide or any similar accident, something of this kind should one day occur.” So we think. And we are not without fears that such a catastrophe may be witnessed ere the governments of the west will take any efficient measures, either to open friendly relations with the Chinese, or to place those who reside here, from their respective nations, on the ground of common safety. It should be remembered, moreover, that the Chinese have no adequate ideas of that invisible Power whose scrutiny none can evade, and who will assuredly punish the evildoer; consequently, when once exasperated, if not held in check by some earthly rule, the bloody tragedy which once occurred at *Canfu*, when thousands of foreigners were massacred, may be repeated.

It would be prudent to guard against such an issue. The extensive commerce which now exists, between the Chinese on the one side, and the inhabitants of Christendom on the other, is an object of no small importance both to individual and national prosperity. By a wise policy this commerce may be greatly increased and extended, and its benefits multiplied and enlarged: by pursuing an opposite course, the reverse must be experienced. To secure the former, and to prevent the latter, something should be done. The question, then, recurs, What measures ought the inhabitants of Christendom to pursue towards this country? Something should be undertaken: what is it? Efficient measures, we think, should be commenced immediately in order to obtain the best means for securing, peacefully and as speedily as possible, the several objects specified above. Ignorance has been a most effectual barrier to every species of improvement, and a most fruitful source of every kind of evil. Were the requisite knowledge possessed, we should rejoice to see envoys at once on their way to Peking. Had England, instead of sending thither her

two embassies, trained up a score or two of able students in this language, and through them secured the requisite knowledge of the country and its inhabitants, the first and most essential means for successful negotiation would now be at command. Able men of this description are indispensable; and the training and qualifying of such should certainly be a prime object of attention. A corps of men devoted to this object, will find ample employment, and a thousand topics for interesting research will come before them; and as they advance in their investigations, they will very soon be able to put others in possession of their acquisitions, so that whatsoever they gain may at once be made useful, not only to the politician, but to the merchant and to the philanthropist. From knowledge thus acquired, it will be easy to solve many doubtful and perplexing questions, and to ascertain with accuracy the course which envoys or ambassadors to Peking ought to pursue.

But, it may be asked, are we to wait until a company of young men have been selected and trained, and grown gray in prosecuting preparatory measures, before any of the desired objects are to be attained? Nay, will any government undertake such a project? Most certainly not, unless some new interest is awakened. However, the object will not be abandoned, though pursued under many disadvantages. Students in this language are more numerous now than at any previous period. Their number is increasing, and they will persevere in what they have undertaken; will read the histories of the Chinese; examine their laws, their policy, their religion; and investigate their works of every kind, and all the productions of their soil. Already useful institutions have been established, and others may soon be undertaken. Most of these efforts, it is true, are being made without the boundaries of the empire. Still they are among the Chinese, thousands of whom are now accessible. In this way knowledge is continually increased and extended, and the desire for it augmented. But our chief hope rests not on any contingences of this kind; were it so, and were there no "sure word of prophecy," giving assurance of better times to come, the friends of China might turn in despair from all their efforts, either for ameliorating the condition of this people, or for establishing friendly relations with this government.

To the foreign residents in this country the question under consideration addresses itself with special force and interest. The little handful of barbarians, "pestered in this pinhole here," possess no ordinary degree of influence—restrictions and all their impotency notwithstanding. So far as the means for giving character to the age, by varied action on the destinies of great multitudes, are concerned, we would rather command the foreign commerce with China, than have at our disposal even kingdoms—like some of the minor ones in modern Europe. With such means at disposal, either for good or for evil, personal responsibility cannot but be felt. It is felt, and more and more deeply from year to year, giving a healthful tone and a commanding influence to public opinion. An idle worth-

less foreigner cannot live in Canton. Men must labor here, else die or leave the place. This community merits the praise, often awarded, of being "extremely temperate." It is likewise charitable, its public benefactions being both frequent and generous. One other point we cannot forbear to particularize; it is, "the better observance of the Sabbath." Let these, and whatsoever things are pure, honest, and of good report, be continued, and daily become more and more conspicuous: let merchants be princes; and princes, the exemplars and patrons of virtue: let each one in his sphere, however humble, frown on vice, seek justice, and avoid even the appearances of evil; let these and such like be the characteristics continually exhibited before this people and government, and great will be the advantage gained towards securing friendly relations with the Chinese. To do all these things, and many more of a similar kind, will operate powerfully to break down the barriers thrown around us. Let no unjust or unfriendly act be committed; and if we be denied many of the privileges—domestic, social, and public—enjoyed everywhere else, let us suffer the wrongs if we must, but on every fitting occasion expose and protest against them. And if western governments choose to keep themselves aloof, the time may yet come—though it is hoping against hope—when the residents here will have their accredited agents at Peking; and from one acquisition to another, gain at length for themselves, and for their respective countries, a free and friendly intercourse with the celestial empire.

ART. II. *Coast of China: the division of it into four portions; brief description of the principal places on the southeastern, eastern, and northeastern portions.*

IN the first part of this paper, published in our number for December last year, we remarked on the configuration of the Chinese coast, that it not unaptly resembles, if we make some allowance for its two or three considerable projections and indentations, the half of an octagonal figure. We drew the sides of this demi-octagon, which we named the southern, southeastern, eastern, and northeastern lines; and we added, that the division, thus artificially made, corresponded with another division, arising out of the degree of our knowledge of the coast. The first line marks a portion, much of which has been surveyed; the second, the present station of the coast-trade in opium, has been frequented for some years, and sketches have been taken of several of the harbors; the third, until lately, might almost be said to be unknown, only two or three spots having been visited; the fourth is

the portion partially made known to us by the voyages of embassies from England to China. With the valuable aid of Horsburgh, we have briefly described the principal places on the first or southern portion of the coast. We must now proceed onwards, in a great measure without that aid, to describe the remaining portions.

The southeastern line of coast. Immediately after rounding Breaker point, the limit of our southern and commencement of our southeastern line, we pass a small town named Chinghae, or rather Tsinghae. We need hardly remark that this is not the district town of Chinghae, which is farther to the northward, and is a large commercial place. A little north of Tsinghae is the entrance of a small river, named Haemun, or Haimoon, a naval station, and a place of some trade, which was visited several years ago by vessels engaged in the opium trade, but without success. The 'Cape of Good Hope,' lies to the northeastward of this, in lat. $23^{\circ} 13' 45''$ north, lon. $116^{\circ} 50'$ east. Here some trade in opium was at one time carried on. In the roadstead, protection can be obtained from northerly and westerly winds, and if close in, from easterly winds also. The character of the land from Breaker point to this place is mountainous and rocky.

The various ports to the northeastward of the Cape of Good Hope, in Kwangtung province, have not been frequented by foreigners. They are said by Mr. Gutzlaff to be Keëyang, Chinghae, Haeyang and Jaouping. The town of Keëyang is situated on an island, formed between two branches of a river, at a distance of several miles from the sea. Chinghae or Tinghae is to the southeast of it, and is the chief town of a small district which the sea almost surrounds. Changlin, 'the forest of camphor trees,' is represented as one of the chief places where Chinese junks are built. It is within the jurisdiction of Chinghae. Haeyang and Jaouping are at nearly the same distance from the sea as Keëyang, namely about 25 or 30 miles, and are to the eastward of Changlin.

The island of Namoa, or Nanaou, lies to the northeastward of the Cape of Good Hope, and to the southward of most of the places we have just named. It is thirteen miles in length, and three miles in average breadth, and consists of two high mountains of unequal extent, connected by a low isthmus. The width of the channel between Namoa and the nearest part of the mainland is about three miles. Namoa is a naval station. The civil jurisdiction is divided, the northern portion of the island pertaining to Kwangtung, and the southern to Fuhkeën; but the whole naval force is under one officer, whose authority extends on both sides of the island. The chief town is Nantsze or Shinao, in a bay on the north side, near the eastern end, and here the naval officer usually resides. The eastern point of the island is in lat. $23^{\circ} 28'$ north, lon. $116^{\circ} 59' 30''$ east. Off the eastern and southeastern sides of Namoa lie several small islets and rocks. In our present sketch of the coast, we are unable to enter upon the description of these. The Lamock (or Nan Päng) islands, and the Chelsien or Chetsien (Tseihsing) rocks are the best known.

Being now on the confines, between the provinces of Kwangtung

and Fuhkeën, we will, before returning to the coast of the mainland, proceed to Formosa, which pertains to the latter province, and is annexed to the line of coast which we are now describing. Of the eastern side of this island, almost nothing is known, and our information respecting the western side is scarcely more extensive. The two sides of the island are separated by a central range of mountains, extending from north to south, over which the Chinese have never yet passed in any considerable body, the eastern side being still occupied by the aboriginal inhabitants. Taewan, or Tayowan, the capital, and formerly the head quarters of the Dutch government of the island, is situated about one third of the whole length from the southernmost point, nearly upon the 23d degree of north latitude, and in lon. $3^{\circ} 32' 30''$ east from Peking. The most approved authorities place the southernmost point of the island in lat. $21^{\circ} 53' 30''$ north, and lon. $120^{\circ} 57'$ east from Greenwich; the northernmost point in lat. $25^{\circ} 33'$ north, lon. $121^{\circ} 28'$ east. The channel which separates Formosa from the mainland of the Chinese coast is from 75 to 120 miles in breadth. In this channel, rather nearer to Formosa than to the mainland, is a cluster of many small islets, with two larger islands among them. These islands, called by the Chinese Panghoo, and by Europeans the Pescadores, are under the jurisdiction of Formosa, and are occupied as a naval station. Pehoo, the largest, affords a good and safe harbor.

Taewan was formerly an excellent harbor, but, being in almost every direction lined with breakers, the sands have in the course of time so accumulated round it, as to render it inaccessible to any vessels but such as are of very light draft; and these sands, often shifting from place to place, also render the entrance very dangerous even to small vessels. No European vessel, we think, has ever attempted to enter it, since the expulsion of the Dutch in the year 1662. The Lord Amherst, in 1832, visiting a place a little to the northward, could not approach within several miles of the shore; and the largest Chinese junks were obliged to anchor outside, and to land and receive cargoes in lighters. The same is true of nearly the whole western coast of the island. In 1824, the *Jamesina* made a cruise from one end to the other of it. She first steered for Taewan, but, "in consequence of sands which lie off it, could not get within ten miles of the shore, which is so low that only the tops of the trees and highest houses could be seen. About sunrise, the high mountains in the interior were generally seen, but during the day they were always obscured." Those on board were "readily supplied here with water and provisions, at moderate prices, and many little articles of manufacture peculiar to the island were brought off." Being unable to sell any of her cargo here, "she ran to the southward, as far as $22^{\circ} 20' N.$, without being able to find any good harbor or roadstead." She then returned to Taewan, procured a pilot to proceed to the northward, visited Lokan, in lat. 24° , and then continued her course to Tongkan, about 40 miles further. These places were mere roadsteads. The *Merope* also visited Formosa in July of

the same year. Being driven off Taewan by a heavy gale, she ran to the northward, and, when the gale moderated, found herself off the town of Tamsui (Tanshuy), near the northermost end of the island. Here, being desirous to find a place where she might refit, the natives recommended her proceeding to Kelung harbor, on the northeast of the island, which was "found to be a most excellent and secure harbor, perfectly landlocked, but rather difficult of entrance, owing to a rapid tide of five and six knots sweeping past the mouth." The depth of water is 20 fathoms close to the rocks, and 60 fathoms a mile off. A survey of this harbor was made by the commander and officers of the *Merope*. The entrance is rather more than half a mile wide. *Merope's* bay is an anchorage somewhat exposed to easterly winds, on the west side of the bay. Killon (Kelung) harbor is at the southwest end. The passage from the anchorage here to the town of Kelung, about a mile distant, is shoal. On the east side of the bay, under the shelter of coral banks on the north, and of the land to the east and south, the *Merope* rode out a severe typhon. Both Kelung and Tanshuy were garrisoned by the Dutch when they had possession of the island. The position of the former is in lat. $25^{\circ} 16'$ north, lon. $121^{\circ} 43'$ east, that of the latter about lat. $25^{\circ} 12'$ north, and lon. $121^{\circ} 20'$ east.

In 1827, the *Dhaulte* visited the same ports as had been visited by the *Jamesina* and *Merope*. She also rounded the northeastern point of the island, and proceeded down the eastern coast, about 30 miles to the mouth of a small river, where was a town named Caballan or Kabatah. She visited also the southernmost part of the island, and remained there several days, anchored in an open roadstead. We have to regret the want of any details respecting this cruise; and we are surprized that hitherto no attempt has been made to learn what commercial facilities exist on the eastern side of Formosa, where the Chinese government has at present no possessions.

We now return to the mainland, on the confines of Kwangtung and Fuhkeën. In running along the coast from thence, we find the islands so numerous, that we cannot undertake even to give their names, but must restrict ourselves to an enumeration and brief description of such harbors and anchorages as have been visited by foreigners.

Tungshan, or, as pronounced by the natives of the place, Tangsoa, about 32 miles to the northward and eastward of the northeast point of Namoa island, is the first place to which we come. It is the head station of a naval force. The anchorage is on the west of a long neck of land, which forms the eastern side of a deep bay. The town of Tungshan and the anchorage for junks is on the further side of the bay. In the mouth of the bay is an island, distinguished by a pagoda, and so situated that a vessel anchoring on the north side of it will be landlocked, and sheltered from all winds. After rounding the neck of land on the east side of the bay, the next point we reach is Hootowshan, off which vessels have sometimes anchored, but it affords no shelter from easterly or southerly winds.

Passing one or two headlands to the northeastward of this place, we reach the harbor of Amoy, as pronounced by the natives, or, as more generally pronounced Heämun. This harbor is in the southwestern corner of a considerable bay, in which are two large and many smaller islands. The largest and westernmost island, named Amoy, forms the northern limit of the harbor, which is sheltered on the east by the smaller of the two principal islands, while the mainland shelters is on the west and south. The town of Amoy is situated at the south end of the larger island, and the anchorage for ships is immediately in front of it. The bay and harbor are safe for any number of ships. The river on which is situated Changchow foo, the chief city of an important department, disembogues a little to the southwest of the town of Amoy. Tungan, another city of importance, is placed at the bottom of an inlet, northwest of Amoy island. The smaller of the two principal islands in this extensive bay, called Quemoy, is situated in lat. $24^{\circ} 20' 30''$ north, lon. $118^{\circ} 16' 30''$ east. It is to the eastward of Amoy, and forms the southwestern side of another harbor, (having the mainland to the north and northeast of it,) which is called the bay or harbor of Kinmun, Kimmoon, or Quemoy. The bay of Leaoulo, a small bay on the eastern side of Quemoy island, affords shelter from southwest winds.

Chimmo, Yungning, or Engleng bay is separated from Quemoy by a peninsula of from four to seven miles in breadth. The anchorage is at the north end, exposed to easterly and southerly winds, but well sheltered to the northeast. Chimmo town is at the south end of the bay, Yungning or Engleng at the north end. Near to Chimmo are two small islands, one distinguished by a pagoda, and northward of this are two rocks, which are to be avoided in entering.

Chinchew, or Tseuenchow, is a city of large extent and considerable importance, situated near the mouth of a river, which disembogues into a bay that receives from the city the name of Chinchew. This bay affords a very safe harbor, sheltered by the mainland on three sides, and on the east and southeast by several islands lying at the entrance. The harbor is further covered by a point of land, having on it a large square pagoda. The position of the anchorage is in latitude $24^{\circ} 52'$ north, lon. $118^{\circ} 44'$ east. Separated from Chinchew by a narrow neck of land is a deep bay, seldom as yet visited by foreigners, at the bottom of which, towards the southwest is a river, on which is the district town of Hwuyan. The curvatures of the land in this bay form several minor bays, the most southern of which has been occasionally frequented, and has received the name of Matheson's harbor.

The Lamyet (or Nanjeih) islands are situated to the northeastward of Chinchew bay, the nearest distant about forty miles. The mainland, leaving its usual northeastern direction, runs out due east for above thirty miles, and the first of the Lamyet islands lies off the easternmost point of it. From hence there is an almost uninterrupted series of islands and islets, up to the mouth of the Yangtze keäng. The Lamyet islands are opposite to the entrance of a deep bay, at

the bottom of which is the city of Hinghwa foo, the capital of the most fertile portion of Fuhkeën. This bay, however, has not yet been visited by foreigners. The outermost of the Lamyet islands, named by Ross Ocksou, was found, when passed by the ships of Lord Amherst's embassy, to be in lat. $24^{\circ} 59' 15''$ north, lon. $119^{\circ} 34' 30''$ east. About thirty miles further to the northward, we pass between an island of peculiar form and the main. This island is named Haetan, the altar of the sea; in shape it is semicircular, and of nearly equal breadth throughout. A few miles above this island we reach the mouth of the river Min.

Fuhchow foo, the capital of Fuhkeën, is situated about twenty-five miles up the river Min, on its northern bank. In entering the river, and the bay into which the river disembogues, there are a few dangers to be avoided, which are clearly delineated on the chart of the entrance drawn up by captain T. Rees, of the Lord Amherst, in 1832, and upon a Dutch chart, published many years since. As this place has been more than once spoken of in preceding volumes of the Repository, we will not now stay to describe the city. To do justice to a description of it, it should be taken by itself. The anchorage in the river Min is in lat. $26^{\circ} 6'$ north, lon. $119^{\circ} 53'$ east.

Tinghae, or Tinghoy, harbor is a safe anchorage, at the northeast end of the bay into which the river Min falls. Kitta, or Ketack, is a small harbor, separated, on the south, from the bay into which the river Min disembogues, by a narrow neck of low land. It can only be entered by small vessels. Samsah, or Sungshan, is an anchorage, affording shelter from south and southeast winds, a little to the northeastward of the last named place. A few miles further north are the Leshan, or Leshan, islands, marking the limit of the province of Fuhkeën, and of our southeastern line of coast.

The eastern line of coast. Continuing our course along the coast of Chêkeäng province, we pass by several harbors frequented by Chinese junks, but which have not yet been visited by European vessels. Among these is that of Wänchow foo, in lat. 28° north, also a large bay a few miles northward of Wänchow foo, and two others between the 29th and 30th parallels of latitude. After a run of about 100 miles from the Leshan islands, we reach the Heysan or Hihshan group, and a little further, the Quesan or Kewshan islands, giving notice of our approach to the extensive Chusan archipelago.

Chusan, or Chowshan, is a large island, about 30 miles in length and 15 in breadth, surrounded by numerous islands and islets of every grade, from about one fourth the size of the principal island, to mere barren rocks just rising above the surface of the water. No description could afford any correct notion of the relative position of islands so numerous scattered in all directions. The largest number is to the south of the principal island. This island lies nearly opposite to the river of Ningpo. On its southern side is a considerable walled town, named Tinghae, in front of which is the principal harbor which the islands afford, in lat. $30^{\circ} 36'$ north, lon. $121^{\circ} 41'$ east, according to Horsburgh, but somewhat diffe-

rently by others. The depth of water in the harbor is from five to seven fathoms. It is completely landlocked and sheltered from all winds. A long and narrow neck of land, extending from the main, terminates in Kittow (Ketow) point, three or four leagues to the southward of Chusan harbor. Running along the northern shore of this land, we shortly reach the entrance of the river of Ningpo. Kintang on the east, and Pooto on the west, of Chusan, are among the larger and more beautiful islands of this extensive group. Pooto possesses a peculiar attraction in the number of splendid temples and picturesque grottoes which cover it. (See Gutzlaff's journal, in the second volume, and the voyage of the *Huron*, in the fourth volume of the *Repository*.)

Ningpo is the chief city of a department, and a place of extensive trade. It is situated on the north bank, five or six leagues up the river Taheä, the mouth of which is about nine leagues distant from Chusan harbor. The channel for entering the river is between some small islands and the eastern point, having on the bar from 3 to 3½ fathoms, and at the anchorage inside from 5 to 6 fathoms. The town of Chinhae is situated immediately within the mouth of the river, and opposite to it is the anchorage, in lat. 29° 54' north, lon. 121° 52' 30" east.

Directly to the northwestward of this river is a deep gulph, the disembouement of the river Tseëntang. A few miles up this gulph is Hangchow foo, the capital of the province Chêkeäng, a place celebrated for its silk manufactures, and the seat of an extensive maritime as well as inland trade. Kanpoo (supposed to be the *Cantû* of the Mohammedan travelers in the eighth century) was formerly the port of Hangchow, but the gradual accumulation of sands has rendered it necessary to move further out towards the sea, to a place named Chappoo, situated like Kanpoo on the northern side of the gulph. From hence is carried on the trade with Japan, consisting of twenty large junks annually. The embankments raised against the encroachments of the sea, and the extensive salt works, in this neighborhood, are objects of interest.

After a run of about sixty miles from the Taheä river, we pass the northernmost islands of the great Chusan archipelago, and having entered the province of Keängsoo, steer northwestward, towards the embouchure of the Yangtze këang, having the low mainland on our left, and the alluvial island Tsungming on our right. The depth of water here is from 3½ to 5 fathoms, muddy bottom. About forty-five miles further, we turn southward into the Woosung river, one of the numerous streams which in this neighborhood intersect the country in every direction. The city Shanghae, a large commercial place, is situated on the right bank of the Woosung, about twenty or twenty-five miles up. The anchorage at the mouth of the river is in lat. 31° 25' north, lon. 121° 1' 30" east. It has been several times visited by foreigners since 1832, when the Lord Amherst first touched there. This place is the limit of our eastern line, and we now proceed to—

The northeastern line of coast. In running from Shanghae along this part of the coast, it is necessary to stand out to sea, in order to avoid the shoals off the mouth of the Yellow river. A run of above 300 miles brings us to the promontory of Shantung, the termination of the projecting land which forms the southern boundary of the gulph of Cheihle. To the southwest of this promontory are a few anchorages of no great importance; on the northwest are the harbors of Weihae wei, Keshanso, and Tangchow foo. Teëntsin, on the Peiho, which disembogues at the eastern end of the gulph of Cheihle, is an important city; Kinchow and Kaechow are in the gulph of Leaou-tung, which runs up northeastward from that of Cheihle.

Of the anchorages to the southwestward of the promontory, we know but little. The Chinese name Haechow, on the frontiers of Keangsoo; Lingshan, at the entrance of the bay of Keaouchow; Aoushan, Laeyang, Tahaou, and Tsinghae. Haechow is at the bottom of a bay immediately to the north of the Yellow river, in lat. $34^{\circ} 32' 24''$ north, lon. $2^{\circ} 55' 47''$ east, of Peking, or $119^{\circ} 10' 16''$ east of Greenwich, according to Du Halde. Keaouchow is in lat. $36^{\circ} 14' 20''$ north, lon. $120^{\circ} 18'$ east, and Lingshan is about twenty miles to the south of it. Aoushan is forty miles to the eastward and northward of Keaouchow. Laeyang is on the east bank of a river, which flowing from thence twenty miles southward, falls into the sea near Aoushan. Tahaou, about twenty miles further to the eastward, is an open roadstead, but Haeyang so, in the neighborhood, affords some shelter. Tsinghae is about forty miles from Haeyang, and is a short distance east of the place that by the English has been named Cape Macartney. The two last named places were visited by the Huron in 1835, and are mentioned in vol. iv., pp. 323, 324 of this work.

The easternmost point of the promontory of Shantung—Chingshan, 'the extreme hill'—is in lat. $37^{\circ} 23' 40''$ north, and lon. $122^{\circ} 45'$ east. It is of moderate height. Alceste island, distinguished by several perforations of the rock of which it is composed, is distant two or three miles from the northeast projection of Chingshan.

Weihae wei (Oie-hai-oie) is distant about thirty-four miles W. by N., from the east point of Chingshan. It is in a well-sheltered bay, having the mainland on the north, west, and south, and shut in on the east by the island Lewkungtaou. On the northeast, the anchorage is a little exposed. It may be reached either from that direction or from the eastward, Lewkungtaou lying midway between the two passages. A small islet lies off the western end of Lewkungtaou, the position of which has been ascertained to be in lat. $37^{\circ} 30' 30''$ north, and lon. $122^{\circ} 10' 55''$ east. Rounding the point of land which shelters Weihae wei on the north, we arrive, after a run of forty-two miles further to the westward, at Keshan so or Kisanseu, on the eastern side of a well-sheltered bay in lat. $37^{\circ} 35' 50''$ north, lon. $121^{\circ} 28' 10''$ east. The inner anchorage is to the north of the town, having the mainland on the south, several islands on the east, a low sandy isthmus on the west, and on the north Zeuootao, originally an island, but now joined by the low isthmus to the mainland. The outer

anchorage is to the eastward of the town, under shelter of the islands above-mentioned. The city of Ninghae chow lies at the bottom of an inlet on the eastern side of the same bay; it is a place of small importance.

T'angchow foo (Tenchowfoo) is about forty miles further to the northwest, and is the northernmost point of Shantung. It is situated in lat. $37^{\circ} 48'$ north, bearing $W.20^{\circ} N.$ from Zeuootao. Exposed to the eastward and westward, and but partially defended to the northward, with a rocky bottom, it is a harbor of no value to vessels of heavy draft. The Miatau (Meaoutaou) islands, which lie to the north of it, afford a safe harbor for vessels not drawing above two or three fathoms, and an anchorage well sheltered to the northward for larger vessels. The gulph of Cheihle commences here. A long neck of land stretches out from the Mantchou coast on the north, reaching to within sixty miles of T'angchow foo, and the Meaoutaou and other groups of islands form a belt across the entrance of the gulph.

The mouth of the Peiho is distant from T'angchow foo about 170 miles. An open roadstead, within several miles of a flat shore, is here the only anchorage. Teëntsin is above thirty miles up the river in a straight line, and allowing for the many curvatures of the river the passage up must be nearly double that distance. Chinese junks are dragged over the shallows that lie off the river Peiho, taking advantage of high tides, and, thus entering the river, they proceed up to Teëntsin. The grand canal joins the Peiho opposite to the city, which is in lat. $39^{\circ} 10'$ N., lon. $0^{\circ} 46' 32''$ E. from Peking.

Of Kinchow at the head of the gulph of Leaoutung, on the western side, and of Kaechow, a little more southerly, on the opposite side of the gulph, we have no information but such as has been furnished by Mr. Gutzlaff, in his journals already published in previous volumes of the Repository. Their positions, as given by D'Anville, are nearly as follows: Kinchow, lat. $41^{\circ} 7'$ north, lon. $4^{\circ} 20'$ east, of Peking; Kaechow, lat. $40^{\circ} 32'$ north, lon. 6° east, of Peking. Two anchorages further to the south than Kaechow, were visited by the H. C. S. Discovery in 1816, after the disembarkation of Lord Amherst and the embassy.

We have thus noticed every place of which we have any knowledge, upon the Chinese coast, from the river Anam, on the frontiers of Tonquin, to the neck of land, absurdly named the Prince Regent's Sword, which bounds on the eastward the gulphs of Cheihle and Leaoutung. We are sensible that in describing so many places which we have never personally visited, much must be very imperfect, and not a little inaccurate. Still, we believe that we have had it in our power to communicate some facts; and we trust to our maritime friends and others who may visit the places spoken of, to correct our errors and from time to time increase our knowledge. The charts of the coast of China are, for the most part, very imperfect. We are anxious to see some efforts made to gain more knowledge of this people in all accessible quarters.

ART. III. *Embassies to China: objects, plans, and arrangements, of Lord Macartney's embassy, to the court of Keënlung, from the king of Great Britain; strictures on the same; and remarks explanatory of the causes of its failure: its course traced, from its origination, to its arrival at the mouth of the Peiho.* Paper 2d: by a Correspondent.

[This article was in hand before that on the 'prospects of China' was written; but we are not aware that our own remarks were modified in the slightest degree by it. On any point, therefore, where the two coincide, they may bear with greater force than either could separately. After going through with his analysis and strictures, our Correspondent will, we hope, give a full outline of what ought to be done. If his papers do no more than show the chief reasons for the failure of former embassies, and draw attention to the subject of opening a direct intercourse with the supreme government of China, they will not have been written in vain.]

It would, we apprehend, be very difficult, if not actually impossible, to find any Englishman, conversant with the proceedings of the two British embassies to China, who does not look with deep regret, not to say disgust, at the way in which his country was needlessly disgraced by them. That the managers of these embassies were ignorant of what should have been notorious to them, is to say nothing—they had taken counsel but with the East India Directors, who studied their commercial interests alone; or, probably, to speak more truly, the whole management was abandoned to them, as the least troublesome way. The strange intermingling of the servants of the king and company seems to give somewhat of a clue to the wishes of the managers; but, whence has come the moral cowardice, the secret undercurrent, unseen but all powerful, by which all the movements of the embassies seem, in reality, to have been directed, it is not, at present, possible to more than guess at. That such did exist; that there were secret instructions, of a character totally different from what, to the casual observer, appears; no man, who has diligently studied the conduct of the embassies, can for a moment doubt. The stamp of it is on every page. We are strongly in doubt whether, in both Macartney's and Amherst's, there was not a *carte blanche* to the envoys, committee of management, or whatever it may have been, where the real power was invested, to perform any, and all, ceremonies that were deemed advisable; or to submit, in fact, to anything that seemed likely to forward the interest of the embassy; or, as we may, at once, term it, the East India Company. We know that the last remaining degradation, the performance of the humiliating ceremony of prostration and knocking head, was only prevented, in the last embassy, by the representation of the ill effects that such would have on the trade of the Company; and this when my lord Amherst and Mr. Ellis had agreed on the performance.

We think it necessary to preface our sketch of Macartney's embassy with these few remarks, as the only clue to the strange want of decent and manly spirit by which it was distinguished. Honor, dignity, and national character, were forgotten; and the only question, throughout, seems to have been, is this likely to effect the object aimed at by the embassy, for good or ill? Had the real character of the Chinese been known; impartial advisers had recourse to; or high spirited men, servants of their country alone, been employed; this consideration would have been as nothing; and the performance of ceremonies, that could, in any way, be turned to a compromise of the independence, or entire equality with China of the country which they represented, would not for one moment have been entertained. The first experiment on their courage or firmness would have been repelled with contempt; no hint of inferiority borne with; all claims, however slight or remote, of superiority, on the part of the Chinese envoys, emperor, or nation, scouted as soon as heard; no second audience been allowed to any officer, however high, who might have dared to claim or insinuate it; a clearly understood recognition of the rank of the embassy insisted on, at once and throughout — had these, which, to any uncontrolled and high minded man, would appear necessary, in the highest degree, been kept steadily in view, from first to last, it would not have been possible for the Chinese to say, as now, with truth, that the first embassy, from Great Britain, acknowledged the inferiority of its country; nor have established a precedent, which will be found all but insurmountable, by those whose ill-fortune it may be to come after them. That they might not have reached Peking, we think possible; but we, who value, as somewhat beyond mere vanity, the respect which a great and independent nation has a right to claim and insist on from all the world, can see but little to regret in so unfavorable an issue to the embassy, compared with what we feel at knowing that, by voluntarily shutting their eyes to the fact, its representatives had disgraced it, beyond recall. All diplomatic intercourse, with an Asiatic power, should be conducted with the greatest care and caution: nothing should be taken for granted, or left for after-arrangement — in no case should inferior officers be held parley with — all, on the side of the stranger, should be managed in the simplest, the most straightforward way — all equivocation, of whatever kind, or for whatever purpose, be studiously avoided: truth, consistency, and firmness, be the plan in which all should be conceived, and carried through; while the same should, as far as possible, be guaranteed from the other party, by the constant use of written, instead of verbal, correspondence; both sides of which, it is known, the Chinese have no scruple to misrepresent, and falsify, whenever it suits their purpose. Every step should be cautiously taken, and carefully canvassed — persons, possessed of local information, be, as far as possible, had recourse to, to prevent mistakes, that might lead to fatal errors: — the utmost respect, in great and small things should alike be insisted on: but, perhaps, more than all these, important as is each, is the personal character and conduct of the man, to whom all is to be entrusted — weakness, indecision, or vacillation, are at

once fatal, and one exhibition of these is enough to sink the embassy in the eyes of the wary and all-observing Asiatics—violence and stubbornness even may, by chance, carry their object; but their opposites can never be forgotten, and most certainly will be worked on as strong points, from the beginning to the end.

How have our ambassadors been selected? What was it that so much distinguished George, earl Macartney, as to cause his appointment to a task of such immeasurable difficulty? Who knew in him that striking and happy combination of the higher qualities of mind, which could alone entitle a man to look for or assume an office, of such superlative responsibility? We know not. Except as connected with this mission, his name might go down to the dust, undistinguished from the general herd; and that which he did, but leaves us surprised, indeed, at the selection. He had been, we are aware, employed at different foreign courts; and promoted to the peerage, as also to the government of Madras; and he had, it is said, been offered the government of India. That he was a *rusé* diplomatist, as such things go in Europe, we incline to think possible; and to believe that it was his reputation for this which was one cause of his appointment. Sir George Staunton, his friend, secretary, coadjutor, or, it may be, even yet more, an active servant of the Company, says that "his reputation was established for talent, integrity, and an aptitude for business;" and remarks that, "it behoved the British administration to select a person of tried prudence, as well as of long experience in distant courts and countries, to enter upon a business of such delicacy and difficulty; and who would be contented with securing future success, without enjoying the splendor of instant advantage." Whether this last passage, written after the failure, was penned to silence or deprecate remarks, we do not know; but must think it probable. That he had not the splendor of instant advantage is certain: that he failed in insuring future success, we, in 1837, know: and that he laid the ground work for future failures, by his "prudence," if sir George Staunton will have it so, we believe; and the embassy of 1816 experienced. *Finis coronat opus*; and we can now tell how far the compliments in 1795 were deserved, by a view of what he did. Better, infinitely better, far wiser, would it have been, had some one, not an *habitué* at courts, been sent here—plain courage and sense—sterling qualities as they are—would have shone brighter, and worked more happily, than the tinsel trumpery of *etiquette*, for his knowledge of which, lord Macartney, in great degree, was, we believe, indebted for his nomination.

The objects of the embassy are now to be considered. We find it expressly stated, "it was undertaken for commercial purposes," and that, "in fact, the intercourse between the two countries was carried on in a manner that required some change:" what that change was, is not so clearly stated; though, it appears to have been, ostensibly at least, the reacquisition of the former right to trade at other ports than Canton, and the removal of some of the shackles, under which

the Chinese kept the East India Company. The keeping up a supply of tea was also not without its effect—we are told that—

“Prudence required to guard against its failure in the mean time, by endeavoring to form such connection with the court of Peking, as might, in its consequences, tend to place the British trade to China upon a less precarious, and more advantageous footing, than hitherto it had stood: as well, also, as to prevent the difficulties, and allay the jealousies, which the intrigues and misrepresentations of the respective dependents or allies of China and Great Britain, might be likely to occasion on the side of Hindostan.” p. 23.

The plan, on which it was to act, is thus stated—

“But it might not be safe to trust to the effect of examples of ordinary rectitude,† without the concomitant qualifications for moving in a scene so novel, and amidst prejudices so inveterate. An ambassador once admitted, the success of the general plan would, certainly, much depend on the impression he and his attendants would make during his journey through the country (!); and his visit to the court.” p. 27.

“The impression,” thus aimed at, we shall have occasion to animadvert on presently. The following is also a part of the same plan.

“A military guard was allowed, also, to attend the person of the ambassador, as practised in eastern embassies; seldom, indeed, for the purposes of safety, but as adding dignity to the mission (!). Lord Macartney’s guard was not numerous, but consisted of picked men from the infantry, as well as from the artillery, with light field pieces, the rapid exercise of which, agreeably to the recent improvements, together with the various evolutions of the men, might in these respects, convey some idea of the European art of war, and be an interesting spectacle to the emperor of China (!); who is said to pride himself as a conqueror of extensive territories, and of many Tartar tribes.” p. 34.

It will seem strange that, though the British connections had then existed near a century, no Englishman could be found, conversant with the Chinese language; and that Paris, Rome, and Naples, must be ransacked to find a man, able to act in the capacity of interpreter. This man, known by the name of “Mr. Plum,” was a native of China, who had learned Latin and Italian at the “Chinese college” at Naples.* Forty-five years after sir George Staunton’s voyage of discovery to find him, to the shame of England be it spoken, there is still no public endowment, or professorship; no inducement held out to the study of the Chinese language—a language which it is more our interest, than that of all other nations besides, to acquire and keep up a correct knowledge of. France has long had professorships—what is her interest in Chinese matters? Germany can also boast of her scholars. How is it that Britain is, of all, the last, though so deeply interested? How is it that, of the few of her citizens who

† What does all this mean?

* Two of these Chinese, so qualified, were found and attached to the embassy—one of them took his departure, when the ships arrived off the Ladrone islands, being afraid of the risk he ran. Had “Mr. Plum” done the same, and it astonishes us that he did not, the embassy would have found itself, in China, without an interpreter; or, had the Chinese seized him, as “holding traitorous intercourse with foreign barbarians,” what a dilemma would they not have been in! “Mr. Plum” was well known to be a Chinese; and it is strange that he was not seized, and punished, if not executed.

have acquired this language, there should not be one on whom the sun of public patronage should have shone? Not one who has met with an honorable award, such as his labors entitled him to, at the hands of his country? While Rémusat shed honor on the literature of France from his professor's chair, now filled and worthily by Stanislas Julien, why should the distinction have been withheld from our Morrison? Strange, that his name should be better known, and his works more appreciated, in foreign countries, than in his own! Strange, that, in our universities, some moderate sum could not be spared to endow a professorial chair, even though it had to be taken from some of those, more laborious than useful persons, who yearly enlighten the public with dissertations on the particles of a dead, and, all but in books, forgotten language!

Presents—those dangerous things, on which all embassies from European courts to China in which they are employed, must needs be wrecked, were sent with lord Macartney; the reasons for sending them, we shall let sir G. Staunton tell.

“It was thought that whatever tended to illustrate science, or promote the arts, would give more solid and permanent satisfaction to a prince, whose time of life would, naturally, lead him to seek, in every object, the utility of which it was susceptible.

“Astronomy being a science peculiarly esteemed in China, and deemed worthy of the attention and occupation of the government, the latest and most improved instruments for assisting in its operations, as well as the most perfect imitation that had yet been made of the celestial movements, could scarcely fail of being acceptable.

“Specimens of the best British manufactures, and all the late inventions for adding to the conveniences and comforts of social life, might answer the double purpose of gratifying those to whom they were to be presented, and of exciting a more general demand afterwards for similar articles, in the way of purchase,⁽¹⁾ from the Company or private merchants.” p. 43.

And, thus framed and selected, the first British embassy from England to China, that was fated to reach the shores of the celestial empire, set out; preceded by a letter, expressive of its intentions, from the chairman of the Court of Directors, to the governor of Canton; thus, as was intended, “securing the effects of first impressions, lest otherwise the undertaking might through error or design, be made to assume a warlike or suspicious appearance, and the ambassador's reception thereby be rendered dubious.” This letter we subjoin. What the emperor of China could have thought of an embassy announced in this manner, by a merchant speaking thus, off hand, of his sovereign's intentions, no one, who does not know the footing on which the Chinese place all merchants, can understand.

“In this letter sir Francis (Baring) stated that, ‘his most gracious sovereign having heard that it had been expected his subjects, settled at Canton, would have sent a deputation to the court of Peking, in order to congratulate the emperor on his entering into the 80th year of his age, but that such deputation had not been immediately dispatched, expressed great displeasure thereat (!); and, being desirous of cultivating the friendship of the emperor of China, and of improving the connection, intercourse, and good correspondence between the courts of London and Peking, and of increasing and extending the

commerce between their respective subjects, had resolved to send his well-beloved cousin* and counsellor lord Macartney, a nobleman of great virtue, wisdom, and ability, as his ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to the emperor of China, to represent his person, and to express in the strongest terms, the satisfaction he should feel if this mark of his attention and regard should serve as a foundation to establish a perpetual harmony and alliance between them; and that the ambassador, with his attendants, should soon set out upon the voyage; and, having several presents for the emperor, from his Britannic majesty, which, from their size, and nicety of mechanism, could not be conveyed through the interior of China, to so great a distance as from Canton to Peking, without the risk of damage,† he should proceed directly, in one of his majesty's ships, properly accompanied, to the port of Teëntsin, approaching in the first instance, as near as possible to the residence of the emperor of China." p. 45.

The instructions to lord Macartney, from the secretary of state, though not clear, or very important, we also give.

"It is observed, that 'a greater number of his subjects, than of any other Europeans, had been trading for a considerable time past, in China; that the commercial intercourse between several other nations and that great empire had been preceded, accompanied, or followed, by special communications with its sovereign. Others had the support of missionaries, who, from their eminence in science, or ingenuity in the arts, had been frequently admitted to the familiarity of a curious and polished court, and which missionaries, in the midst of their cares for the propagation of their faith, were not supposed to have been unmindful of the views and interests of their country; while the English traders remained unaided, and as it were, unavowed, at a distance so remote as to admit of a misrepresentation of the national character and importance; and where, too, their occupation was not held in that esteem, which might be necessary to procure them safety and respect; that under these circumstances, it became the dignity and character of his majesty to extend his paternal regard to these his distant subjects, even if the commerce and prosperity of the nation were not concerned in their success; and to claim the emperor of China's protection for them, with that weight which is due to the requisition of one great sovereign from another; that, a free communication with a people, perhaps the most singular upon the globe, among whom civilization had existed, and the arts been cultivated, through a long series of ages, with fewer interruptions than elsewhere, was well worthy, also, of being sought by the British nation, which saw with pleasure and with gratitude applauded, the several voyages undertaken already, by his majesty's command, and at the public expense, in the pursuit of knowledge, and for the discovery and observation of distant countries and manners; but that, in seeking to improve a connection with China, no views were entertained except those of the general interests of humanity (!), the mutual benefit of both nations (!), and the protection of commerce under the Chinese government.'" p. 47.

His majesty's letter to the Chinese emperor, as a curiosity in its way, is worth reading; the self trumpeting was decidedly in the most approved Chinese fashion; and had a fair chance of being believed, as we should one from the brother of the sun, first cousin of the moon,

* If translated thus, this must have seemed strange to the Chinese; as they would not fail to find out the truth. Not one paltry fiction of European diplomacy spared!

(!) Falsehoods all! and done in the mere hope of reaching the emperor.

&c., as some of the easterns yet style themselves. Magnify himself as he might, he could still but be the obedient vassal of the great emperor; his desire to extend the bounds of friendship, a tender of his allegiance—his presents, tribute to his liege lord. Such was the situation of the embassy, when it appeared on the shores of China.

“It is said in his majesty’s letter to the emperor of China, that, “the natural disposition of a great and benevolent sovereign, such as his imperial majesty, whom Providence had seated upon the throne for the good of mankind,(!) was to watch over the peace and security of his dominions; and to take pains for disseminating happiness, virtue, and knowledge, among his subjects: extending the same beneficence, with all the peaceful arts, as far as he was able, to the whole human race. That his Britannic majesty, impressed with such sentiments from the very beginning of his reign, when he found his people engaged in war, had granted to his enemies, after obtaining victories over them in the four quarters of the world,(!) the blessing of peace, upon the most equitable conditions; that, since that period, not satisfied with promoting the prosperities of his own subjects, in every respect, and beyond the example of all former times, he had taken various opportunities of fitting out ships, and sending, in them, some of the most wise and learned of his own people, for the discovery of distant and unknown regions; not for the purpose of conquest, or of enlarging his dominions, which were already sufficiently extensive for all his wishes, nor for the purpose of acquiring wealth, nor even favoring the commerce of his subjects; but for the sake of increasing the knowledge of the habitable globe, of finding out the various productions of the earth: and for communicating the arts and comforts of life to those parts, where they had hitherto been little known: and that he had since sent vessels, with animals and vegetables most useful to man, to islands and places where, it appeared, they had been wanting; that he had been still more anxious to inquire into the arts and manners of countries, where civilization had been improved by the wise ordinances and virtuous examples of their sovereigns, through a long series of ages; and felt, above all, an ardent wish to become acquainted with those celebrated institutions of his (Chinese) majesty’s populous and extensive empire, which had carried its prosperity to such a height, as to be the admiration of all surrounding nations (!). That his Britannic majesty being then at peace with all the world, no time could be so propitious for extending the bounds of friendship and benevolence, and for proposing to communicate and receive the benefits which must result from an unreserved and amicable intercourse between such great and civilized nations as China and Great Britain.” p. 49.

That there were not, even then, people wanting who regarded the exhibition of pomp and pretension with eyes of suspicion, we find recorded; but, we are told, that they were but those who “still held to the exploded prejudice of the jealousy of commerce, not being, it seems aware that the world was wide enough for all who chose to embark in that kind of life, and that it flourished best by reciprocation.” Some such people, sir George Staunton allows, “failed not to attribute to the British Administration, and East India Company, a design of engrossing the total trade of China,” an opinion which we, writing near half a century afterwards, are fain to acknowledge was, in all probability, a correct one.

Before the ambassador and his suite reached China, the effects, which might have been looked for, from the admixture of which it

was composed, had begun to show themselves—"the hoppo found a flaw in the commission, by their not having been deputed directly from the king of Great Britain—but, being merely representatives of the East India Company—he did not let slip the occasion to perplex and oppose them, by every artifice in his power." We presume that this perplexing must have been in return for that which he must have endured, in attempting to reconcile the announcement of a king's embassy, by servants of a commercial body; a perplexity which seems to have extended to the *fooyuen* and others; and probably, as we think, had no small share in causing the embassy to lose much of the opinion which it perhaps might, if uncoupled with this ever-present Company, have received. We must not here omit to notice the fact, that "the hong merchants had, on this occasion, given a bond, to government, promising that the gentlemen, who brought the dispatches there, would remain for a reply from court." We should much like to know what reasonable hope of success could be entertained for an embassy commencing its career by such anomalous, and to the Chinese, irreconcilable, proceedings. How could the fellows of merchants, after this plain and public avowal of inferior rank, ever hope that their claims of equality with the emperor could be, for an instant, listened to? From the moment that the Chinese had a right to think that deceit was being practiced on them, and the name of the king only borrowed to serve the purposes of the Company; from that moment, chance of success there was none. Probably, the Chinese were mystified with the admixture; and could not distinguish between them at that time:—and from that to this, the two services, king's and company's, have been so singularly blended together, that we might excuse yet more acute people than the Chinese for not distinguishing one from the other. Even now, mean as it is, the British government condescends to receive, from the East India company, a share of the amount of expense incurred by keeping up the commission to this country; and we have small hesitation in avowing our conviction, that it was this admixture that, more than anything else, rendered lord Napier's mission doubted by the Chinese; and which has made it, and all others for the last half century, looked on with doubt and mistrust.

If the embassy had reason to complain of prejudices against them, on the part of the Chinese, it is evident that, on their side, none such were reciprocated; for we find, in the account of the embassy, published six years after it, the utmost pleasure and satisfaction at all the novelties of country, persons, or manners, met with, in this, to them, new world. All is seen *couleur de rose*—great and good qualities are discovered in each mandarin that they fall in with. On a first interview with a 'soldier mandarin,' a discovery is made that, 'though he was no boaster in his department, yet there was sometimes perceptible an honest consciousness of his prowess and achievements.' This is seeing much, at a first sight, certainly; and, of the same sort of puerile stuff, there is no want in any part of Staunton's work. We never read any of these half ludicrous generalizations of ideas from

particular instances, without being reminded strongly of the story of the French *savant*, who meeting a Chinese on his way out, in the morning, to pay visits, at once returned home, in all haste, to write a book about him.

We now approach the commencement of the farce. Many of the mandarins were found anxious to ascertain the contents of the letter, and the particulars as to the presents; the first was *evaded*—not met with a plain refusal—but with a subterfuge, and a falsehood; the second seems to have been a different affair, for the silly apprehension of our ambassadors, who seem to have thought themselves interested in soothing and humoring the then clever emperor of China, more as though he were a child or a savage, than as if they thought they had to deal with their superior, in all mental powers yet more than in rank. In this silly and inflated vein, which, forsooth, they dub “our oriental style,” they say that,—

“The king of Great Britain, willing to testify his high esteem and veneration for his imperial majesty of China (!), by sending an embassy to him at such a distance, and by choosing an ambassador among the most distinguished characters of the British dominions (!), wished also that whatever presents he should send, might be worthy of such a wise and discerning monarch (!). Neither their quantity nor cost could be of any consideration before the imperial throne, abounding with wealth and treasures of every kind. Nor would it be becoming to offer trifles of momentary curiosity, but little use. His Britannic majesty had been, therefore, careful to select only such articles as might denote the progress of science, and of the arts in Europe, and which might convey some kind of information to the exalted mind (!) of his imperial majesty, or such other articles as might be practically useful. The intent and spirit accompanying presents, not the presents themselves, are chiefly of value between sovereigns.” p. 491.

The description which follows of the several presents appears more like the tiresome prosing of some aged pedagogue, holding forth to boys, than language of men of business informing a superior. This stuff, bombast and all, is given at great length by Staunton, as though, in reality, a performance and manœuvre of singular ability. Trifling as it is, it helps to prove how widely the character of the people with whom they had to do was misapprehended by the embassy; and shows what the chance of success could be, in greater things, when in small ones such silliness was exhibited.

We have now followed the embassy to its place of action; and, passing by the wordy and lengthy and most ridiculous orders for the *Lion*, in her projected voyage, to establish relations with Japan, Manila, Magindanao, &c., “by the medium of a Malay sailor who spoke some English, an English sailor who spoke the Malay language, and a China servant who spoke Portuguese,”* we shall bestow a few lines on a part where the real intent of the embassy breaks out, undesignedly.

“It had been intended by the East India Company, that as soon as the Hindostan should be discharged by the ambassador at Teëntsin, she should proceed to Canton to take a cargo from thence for Europe, in the usual way

* Is it possible for absurdity to go beyond this?

of trade. As she must in her route pass by Chusan, it was now (!) thought desirable for her to touch there, in the probability of her procuring a lading home on more advantageous terms than at Canton, if leave should happen to be granted for the purchase, at the former port, of the teas and silks of the neighboring provinces. On this account, captain Mackintosh was the more readily allowed by the ambassador to accompany him to Peking, that he might have the opportunity of soliciting that permission personally from the government (!); and might, in his way back to join his ship, have perhaps occasion to observe the method of manufacturing the goods he generally carried from China, relative to which the East India Company was desirous of receiving particular information (!). pp. 502-3.

There is a *naiveté* in the latter part of this, quite amusing. The master of the "present-ship" to be "taken to court," that "he might have an opportunity to ask, personally," what would not have been asked at all, had a due regard to what should have been the sole objects of the embassy been kept in view! Here is another instance, of that mingling of trade with politics, which we may well excuse the Chinese for not being able to understand. Captain Mackintosh may have been a good and respectable man, in his own country; but, in the eyes of the Chinese, as captain of a trading junk, he was beneath a thought; and his person, visit, and object, alike contemptible.

We have, hitherto, gone, almost completely, on the official statements of the transactions of the mission. We shall now call a witness into court, whose evidence we may have to refer to frequently. He is not so polished in his manner, nor are his descriptions so varnished as those of his master, in which relation lord Macartney stood to him. The work, small in size, and utterly unassuming, is but a mere journal, kept regularly, and interspersed by remarks and observations, excited by what was seen and felt. The author was a Mr. Æneas Anderson, who filled the office of *valet de chambre* to the ambassador, and who from his situation, we presume, it was not considered necessary to bind with the same restriction as the "gentlemen of the embassy," in the matter of book writing about the proceedings. As we can well fancy, to the amazement and horror of sir George Staunton and his lordship—while all England was ringing with the wonders which had been seen, and were to be described in the book, understood to be in progress by the hand of the embassy—in steps, unexpected, unannounced, the unheeded domestic; and, snatching the prize from the earl and baronet, dashes away with the originality, the newness of the project, at the same time that he manages to rub off great part of the varnish and tinsel which the elevated authors were at so much trouble in preparing for public exhibition. The book was, we believe, eventually purchased, by an annuity and a commission in the army, to the author; though not before several editions had been called for, in rapid succession; one in April 1794, a second in May; and a third in December. We name this, to show that, though now little known, the work was well thought of, in its day; and, from the plain mode in which the story is told by Mr. Anderson, his want of embellishment and absence of all plan or style, we incline to think that he told, what appeared to him, the truth; no slight praise for a traveler to China.

Many of the statements made by him are not alluded to, in the larger work; and among others, we find mention made of "the display on board the junks, which conveyed the embassy, of lamps made of transparent paper, with characters painted on them, to notify the rank of any passengers on board—the same service which the lamps perform by night, as far as relates to notification, is performed in the day time by silken ensigns, whose painted characters specify in the same manner, the existing circumstances of the vessels." We should like much to know what these characters were; and particularly, whether, as in the last embassy, the character *kung*, tribute, was to be found among them.* If this was introduced, and we cannot imagine that it was not, the ambassador, by submitting to it, gave up at his first step his power to assert, at any after time, the independence and dignity of his mission and country; and this may go far to prove how necessary it is that a strict guard should be kept on all that is done by the Chinese; and how infinitely preferable a knowledge of the manners and dispositions of the Chinese ought to be considered in an embassy, than an "acquaintance with foreign courts," the mere senseless routine of European diplomacy. The peculiarities of the Asiatics in no way correspond to ours; and, from ignorance alone, an envoy, of the highest rank, may be content to bear what is meant as insult, though to his inexperienced eye it passes undetected.

A striking instance of this, where the advantage was gained by the ignorance of a man, known as too brave and high minded to render it safe to palm insult on him, save by stratagem, we subjoin as to the point.

"When sir Sidney Smith went to Acre, during its siege by the French, he declared he would not land if Djeddar did not come down to the beach to receive him; this is a distinction which a great Turk was hardly ever known to pay to a Christian, but as a Turk will condescend to any degradation when in want of service which he cannot command, Djeddar did it. On entering his serae with sir Sidney, the pasha pretended to feel fatigued and unwell, and begged sir Sidney to lend him his arm to ascend the staircase, with which sir Sidney, not seeing the artifice, naturally complied; this was a piece of cunning in Djeddar to show his attendants and soldiers, that he was supported by an English admiral,—such support being never given to a Turk but by an inferior, or servant." *Turner's Tour in the Levant, vol. 3, pp. 440, 441.*

Many parallels to this may be found in all the missions, from Britain to Peking, or Canton; and yet worse, in many instances, where the object was plainly gross and uncalculated for insult, deliberately offered, submission, or, at the most, lukewarm remonstrance was had recourse to as the wisest course, often from the fear of the consequences. It wanted no prophet to foresee the results to be gained by an embassy so constituted and prepared.

* * *

* This we shall have to show was actually the case in this embassy, and is mentioned later in Staunton's account; but it is to be wished that we could distinctly know whether this was practiced while the embassy had it in its power to return to the ships. If not opposed then, it must of course be submitted to throughout; and, if well opposed then, it would not have been tried afterwards.

ART. IV. *Central Asia, being a brief description of the general physical features of Usbek Túrkestan; its mountains, rivers, productions—mineral, vegetable, &c.*

A SKETCH of China proper and its dependencies, was given in the early numbers of the first volume of the Repository. In its preparation, we were able to draw some aid from Chinese authors. Native geographers are, however, of little use when we pass the boundaries of the Ta Tsing empire. They conduct us to their own frontiers, and there leave us. For this reason it will not be expected, that we can throw new light on the obscure statistics of Central Asia. The object of the present article is, to place before our readers the information for which we are indebted to Erskine, Meyendorff, Nazaroff, Conolly, Burnes, &c. To survey the Chinese empire *from without*, to examine its foreign relations, to estimate the forces of the external pressure upon it, comes fully within the design of the Repository. Perhaps it would be more in order to commence such a survey, at one or the other of the two points where the ocean no longer bounds this empire, and its frontier line trends into the interior. It has been more convenient, however, to take up first the region bordering on Chinese Túrkestan and Soungaria. These most western of the Chinese possessions, have been sketched in vol. 1, No. 5, and further observations on their present condition introduced, in Nos. 6, 7, and 8, of the 5th volume.

Some difficulty occurs, at the outset, in tracing the Chinese boundaries. It appears, that the traveler, from British India, ascending the valley of the Sutlej and crossing the highest passes of the Himálaya, is stopped by the officers of the gelpo or rájá of Ladák, which forms, under the Chino-Tibetan government, the province of Ari. The Chinese frontier appears to skirt the eastern ranges of the Himálaya northward, to nearly the 33^d parallel of latitude, and thence to follow an undefined line, across the plain of Baltí, or Little Tibet, to the Karakorum mountains, intersecting the Indus, about 77° east longitude, between Ladák and Iskárdo. This line would strike the Karakorum range about 36° north latitude, and thence, it follows it to its junction with the Belúr or Bolor mountains. At what point these ranges meet, and at what angles, seems not determined. Western geographers consider the Belúr range, as running nearly south, and coming down, to join the Hindú Kúsh, between Bolor and Badakshan on the west, and Chitral on the east. The Chinese appear to regard the Karakorum, or Tsungling, as the same range with the Belúr, and this view, if equally correct, must be the more acceptable to the geographer. Probably these views are to be reconciled, by regarding the former as the eastern, and the latter, the western, declivity, of the same elevated system, the plains of Pamer lying between

them. The geographer will be inclined to prefer the Chinese view, because the southern part of the Belúr range, does not stop the course of the upper branches of the Oxus and the Indus, while the Tsungling seems to be the real dividing range, turning to the north the waters of the Yárkand, and to the south, those of the Shyúk, the main trunk of the Indus. The Tsungling and Belúr should be recognised, it appears then, as the great unpenetrated, separating range of Central Asia, notwithstanding the probably superior height of the peaks of the Himálaya. They form together the noble frontier and defense of Chinese Turkestan and Soungaria. The Belúr mountains maintain a lofty elevation as far as the Aktag, and perhaps farther, but decline as they approach the Altai range, on the north-west of Soungaria.

The region thus separated from the Chinese dominions on the east, is bounded on the south, by the Indian Caucasus, Hindú Kúsh, the Paropamisus or Ghúr, and the desert thence to the Caspian. On the north, a continuation of the Altai range separates it from the steppe of Issim. On the west, it has no natural boundary, nearer than the Caspian. This well-marked region, though it includes some independent states and tribes, may be called, as it often is, "Usbek Túrkestan." After a brief survey of its general physical features, we will describe it more in detail under its modern political divisions.

The Belúr range is the grandest of the physical features of this region. Its southern termination is placed, by European geographers, in about 34° north latitude, the countries southward of which are drained by the Indus. To the eastward the Karakorum crosses the parallels 78° east longitude and 36° north latitude, two degrees north of Ladák, in an east by south direction. Near the intersection, it gives rise, on its southern declivities, to the main source of the Indus. Between 37° and 40° north latitude, the Belúr divides the waters of the Yárkand, Khoten, and Kashgar rivers, from those of the Oxus. About 41° north latitude, the Belúr is crossed by the Aktag, or Asferah range; and at this parallel, the best maps give it a northeasterly course, around the vallies in which lie the upper branches of the Sir (Syr) or Jaxartes. Its elevation lessens north of this river, and declines still more as it approaches its northern termination, about 50° north latitude in the Uluk or Sholo range, a continuation of the Altai mountains. The streams which issue from this range, north of the Sir, are not important, and do not reach the Aral. The lake Balkashi or Palcati is laid down near its eastern declivity; this position appears to require that the Belúr again take a north-northwest direction. Along this part of their frontier, it appears that the Chinese have not pushed their exclusive claims quite to the mountains. Tribes of Kirghís are said to maintain some authority around the lake Balkashi, as well as to roam over the plains of Pamer. This need not, however, be regarded as disturbing the political division of this region. This great range has not yet been subjected to scientific observation. Only one modern European traveler, De Goez, is known to have crossed it, and his travels appear to have contributed but little to previous

imperfect information. There are three passes by which these mountains are usually approached, and at these points their situation and elevation might be examined.

The southeastern route, from Ladák to Yárkand, crosses the high land of Little Tibet and strikes the Karakorum between 77° and 78° east longitude. Natives who have made the journey, state the summits to be free from snow in summer. This, however, must be attributed to the height of the table-land, and comparative lowness of the peaks, as all the evidences of great altitude are felt, in difficulty of breathing, giddiness, &c. It does not seem certain, whether the communication said to exist between Iskárdo and Yárkand, is by this route, or by passes lying farther westward. The second of the routes, across the Belúr, follows the Badakshan, or Kokash, river, and crosses the plain of Pamer, to the upper vallies of the Yárkand river. This is the route of Marco Polo, and De Goez, and in one time of the caravans from Cábúl, and Bokhára. The northern route is that of the caravans, from Kokan to Kashgar. It follows the southern branch of the Jaxartes, and crosses by the Terek, or Tizik, pass, southeast of Ush, to the valley, in which lies the source of the Kashgar river.

It is supposed the altitude of the Belúr cannot be less than 20,000 feet, and it may have peaks rivalling the loftiest of the Himálaya. Its mineral treasures are almost as little known as its geological character. Its ruby mines, and cliffs of lapis lazuli, near Sikinam, have been celebrated from the time of Marco Polo. The Oxus brings down from it the washings of gold, which are found almost throughout its upper course, and are particularly rich in the district of Durwaz. Probably, access to this range would be best obtained by following the summer encampments of the Kirghís, as they pass southward from their winter abodes near the Sir, along the elevated levels and vallies of the Belúr, to the great plain of Pamer, east of Badakshan.

This plain seems to be an extension of the table-land of Tibet, and to extend with diminishing breadth to 40° north latitude. The lake Surikul, or Karakul, is said to occupy its centre, around which the plain stretches six days' journey on every side. The waters of this lake, are said to communicate with the upper branches of the Sir, the Oxus, the Indus, and the Kashgar; but, it seems impossible to reconcile this account with the direction of the mountain chains, and the distance between these rivers. It appears from the map of Burnes that the Kashgar river is the outlet of lake Surikul; and this is confirmed by some Chinese maps. The short forage which covers this plain in summer, is cropped by the flocks of the Kirghís, but its season is too brief for any cultivation, and the cold is excessive in winter. The Aktag, or Asferah mountains, which bound this plain in the north, are an extension of the Teénshan, which separate Chinese Túrkestan from Soungaria. They divide the waters of the Sir from those of the Oxus, and form the lofty and impassable frontier of Kokan on the south, as far west as Uratippa. The road from Samarkand to Khojend there crosses them. Farther west, they are lost in the desert

toward the Aral, the southern range turning a little to the south of west, and making the southern boundary of the country of Khíva. The eastern part of this range, is said to be rugged and precipitous, and to have snow on its summits, even in summer.

The region south of the Asferah, to Saidabad, and Wakhan, and west to 68° east longitude, is a system of mountains, the outlying ranges or successively declining terraces of the Belúr. That part of the system which extends from the Kohik to Saidabad, has very lofty peaks, some of which, near 38° north latitude, were seen by Burnes 150 miles distant, capped with snow, in the midst of summer. In Báber's time, this range was called the "Karatigin," but that name appears to be forgotten now, and its place not supplied by any other. The valley of the Sir is bounded on the north, by a range, called the Alatag, or Mingbúlák, which is in some parts of considerable elevation. It confines that river to a western course, as far as Khojend. There it bends southward, to meet the Asferah; and then, breaking through a barrier, which seems to attempt to arrest its course, turns abruptly northward towards the Aral. One more range parallel to the Asferah is found in the north of the Kirghís country, separating it from the steppe of Issim. Russian accounts make it consist of schistus, sandstone, limestone, and some granite. Blocks of jasper and quartz are also met with, and indications of copper, silver, lead, &c. Its elevation is not remarkable, but it forms the natural boundary of Central Asia on the north, beyond which the country slopes towards the Arctic ocean. This range is less important as a frontier, the Kirghís crossing it easily in summer, in quest of pasture. The same may be said of the Belúr mountains between the Kirghís country and Soungaria, the same tribes finding their way across them to the lake Balkashi, the plains of Pamer, and the vicinity of Kashgar.

On the south, the Indian Caucasus, and Hindú Kúsh, have stopped the progress of the Usbeks, and given a boundary to Usbek Túrkestan. Some of the passes across this range have been crossed, of late years, by British travelers. The peak of Kohi Baba, west of Cábúl, has been found to have an altitude of 18,000 feet. The Hindú Kúsh mountain, north of that city, towers still higher. Its summit is in sight at Cábúl, and was seen by Burnes from Khúlám, 150 miles north, covered with snow in summer. Beyond 68° east longitude, this range loses its elevation, and forms the broad mountainous tract called the Ghúr, or Paropamisus. Thence its course is west-north-west, by Herat, and Meshed, rising again near Kúchan to the height of 7000 feet, and thence along the south bank of the Gúrgan, to the Caspian. The country north of this range, to the Oxus and the Aral, has no eminences which merit the name of mountains.

The rivers of Usbek Túrkestan nowhere communicate with the ocean. The smaller lose themselves in stagnant pools, or arid deserts; the larger find their way to the Caspian or the Aral. On the north-west, the Jaik or Ural forms the boundary, between the Kirghís country and Russia, as well as between Europe and Asia. Its course,

is westerly, from longitude 60° to 51° east, where it turns southward to the Caspian. Between the Aral and the Sir, several small rivers are laid down, under the names of the Targai, Sarasú, &c. They rise in the mountains on the northeast of the Kirghís country, and running south and south-westerly, lose themselves, in marshy lakes, east and north of the Aral. The Sir, the ancient Jaxartes, is one of the most important rivers of Usbek Túrkestan. It rises in the Belúr range, between 41° and 43° north latitude, runs west to Khojend, thence north and west to its outlet, about 46° north latitude, in the Aral. It is a rapid river, swollen in the summer, by the melting of the snow, at which time it has a breadth of 300 yards. Near its mouth it is said to have not more than one third this width, and Biber says it is lost in the sands before reaching the Aral. About 200 miles above its mouth, it forms a delta widening to 60 miles, and covered with a rank growth of water plants, reeds, &c. Its whole course, must be not far from 700 miles, of which boats are said to ascend 500 miles to Kokan. The Russian mission approaching it from the north, found several dry canals or river beds, and one or more impetuous tributaries. In winter, it is frozen so hard as to be crossed on the ice, by caravans. The Sir seems never to have been used for the purpose of communication, but there is provision, in the abundant supply of coal along its banks, for the future steam-navigation of this river, and the sea of Aral. South of the Sir, and nearly in the parallel of 40° north latitude, we have the celebrated Sogdh, or Kohik, watering the rich vale of Samarkand and Bokhára. It rises in the Karatag, about 70° east longitude, and discharges what waters are left it, by irrigation; in the lake Dengis, in 64° east longitude, a few miles north of the Oxús. This river, though inconsiderable, in length and volume, is still one of the most remarkable in Central Asia. It has no mineral treasures like the Oxús, but the epithet Zirefshán, "gold shedding," is given it, for the riches which it pours over the country which it waters. It swells, like the other rivers of this region, with the melting of the snows, but in the dry season, it does not for some months reach Bokhára. Sixty miles south of the Kohik, and parallel to it, we find the Kárshí, which waters the beautiful oasis of Sheher Subz, and is lost in the sands, 16 miles beyond Kárshí.

The great river of Túrkestan, is the Amú, or Jihon, the ancient Oxús. The first of these names is that by which it is known to the tribes on its bank; the second, that by which it is described in the Persian and Túrki writings. It is formed by the junction of the Bolor and Badakshan, between Huzrutiman and Kurgantippa. The former of these may communicate with the Sunkore, but its true source seems rather to be in 37° north latitude and 72° east longitude. After running northwest along the Belúr mountains, it turns north and northwest between Durwaz and Wakhan, to its junction with the Badakshan. The Badakshan rises still further east, about 36° north lat., and pursues a northwest course to the junction. Below Huzrutiman, the Oxús receives the united waters of the rivers of Kúndúz

and Talighan, and is no longer fordable. It emerges from the hilly country at Kilef, after receiving from the north the Hissar, and Toupalak, and from the south the Khúlúm. On one map, the Oxus has another northern tributary, farther to the west, called the Kisil Daria. It appears however, that there is in truth, no such river. At Kilef, it has a breadth of 550 yards. At Charjúi, 200 miles lower down, it has 650 yards, and 20 feet depth, and runs with a rapid ($3\frac{1}{2}$ miles) current, over a sandy bed, northwest towards the Aral. From Tirmez, above Kilef, to Khíva, its banks are low, and the narrow interval of one to two miles, between the first and second bank, is the limit of cultivation. Its channel is straight, free from rocks or rapids, impeded by few sand-banks, and but for the marshes near its mouth, navigable more than 600 miles from Kúndúz to the Aral. It is spread by art, in the district of Khíva, and forms a delta of fifty miles before it reaches the Aral. This delta, like that of the Sir, is composed of marshes, sand-hills, &c., and is so overgrown by reeds, grass, and aquatic plants, as to be uncultivable. Both tracts are probably extending depositions of earth, constantly taking place from the muddy waters of these rivers. The Oxus was bridged across by Timúr and Nadir. At the present time, it is crossed by 15 ferries between Charjúi and Kúndúz. Below Charjúi, 150 boats of 20 tons each, are employed in transporting merchandise, between Bokhára and Khíva.

The river of Balkh, like the southern branch of the Oxus, is fed by the snow of Hindú Kúsh, but its waters are quite expended in irrigation, leaving still an arid tract of 30 miles breadth, between them and the Oxus. Between the Oxus and Herat, we find the Murgháb, issuing from the Paropamisus, and after a winding course of near 300 miles, losing itself, in the desert, west of Merve. Farther to the south, we have another small river, the Tejend, and beyond Kúchau, the Attruck, and the Gúrgan, which carry a small tribute by mouths of 40 and 60 yards to the waters of the Caspian. These streams belong physically to Persian Khorásan. On our maps, their place is unjustly taken by a river called the Tedjen or Ochus, running from Herat and falling into the Caspian.

Usbek Túrkestan is remarkable for its numerous collections of water, with no outlets to the ocean. They receive fresh water rivers, but have all of them, more or less of saline impregnation. The Caspian, with its salt, bitter, muddy, phosphorescent waters, forms for more than 1000 miles, the western boundary, of Túrkestan. It abounds with fish, and water-fowl. Its northern gulfs are often frozen. Its eastern shores are rather cold. Domes of sand surround it on the northwest. On the south, its marshy shore, rises into the elevated and fruitful, but humid and unhealthy, province of Mazanderan. A desert of hard clay, with a partial covering of sand, separates the Caspian from the Aral. This lake, or sea, called also the lake of Khwáresm, has less saline impregnation than the Caspian. Its water is said to be drinkable, and its surface not often frozou. Water-fowl and fish are found in it, and tribes of Karakalpaks, &c., subsist

on these, and on the grain they grow along the shores, where they are not too marshy for cultivation. North and east of the Aral, the country abounds with salt lakes and marshes, the expansion of the rivers of that region, but none of them of considerable extent. South of the Sir, we have only the Denjis, 25 miles long, which receives the surplus waters of the Kohik. It is said to maintain its level through the year, though the supply is cut off for some months in the summer. Excellent fish are found in its salt waters.

To these notices of the physical features of this region, must be added some remarks on its division into cultivated and desert land. The former is limited to the banks of the Sir, the Kohik, the Kárshí, the Oxus, the Balkh, and the Murgháb, and a small part of the shores of the Aral. A great part of the country from the Sir north to Siberia, and from Bokhára north-westward to the Aral, and from the Oxus west to the Caspian, is incapable of cultivation, and much of it is a picture of sterility and desolation. Túrkestan presents, therefore, in close and strong contrast, the extremes of luxuriance and barrenness, the richest oases and the most dreary deserts. The fixed population is, of course, found in the former divisions. The pastoral and nomade tribes occupy the latter. These distinctive races, will show themselves as we go over the country again, describing it under the following heads, corresponding with its present political sections.

1st, The Kirghís country, from the Ural, or Jaik river, to the Sir and the Aral. 2d, The kingdom of Kokan. 3d, The kingdom or khanat of Bokhára. 4th, The region of the upper Oxus, chiefly under the control of the amír of Kúndúz. 5th, The khanat of Khíva. 6th, The deserts of the Túrkmans, from the Sir and Bokhára, west to the Aral and Caspian, and south to Khorásan.

ART. V. *Ophthalmic Hospital at Canton: the sixth quarterly report, for the term ending on the 4th of May, 1837.* By the Rev. Peter Parker, M. D.

SIX hundred and fifty patients have been received during the last three months, making the whole number, since the opening of the hospital, 3350. A more extensive acquaintance with the diseases and character of the people, may soon enable me to give a different form and more variety to the reports. The interest in the institution continues to increase, and the eagerness to enjoy its benefits has never been greater than at present. The crowd of patients, on the day of receiving them, now limited to once in two weeks, has been very great. Sometimes not less than 200 or 300, and on one occasion about 600, including their friends, have been present during a single

day. Notwithstanding the institution is designed for the blind, great numbers of all diseases are presented, and often their importunity is successful in gaining admission. The importunity is frequently seconded by those who have received some special benefit; and being intimately acquainted in the hospital, are free in their solicitude for friends. Regarding simply the present welfare of those afflicted with various and aggravated maladies, none can witness these scenes and not perceive the urgency of speedily extending these healing efforts. It is very unpleasant to refuse aid to those who are within the reach of remedial powers, because it is impracticable to do so, and treat those already received. There is reason to fear that turning them away will have an unfavorable influence. They see others afflicted with diseases of the eye, with tumors and fractured limbs, are healed gratuitously, but since they have a cough, a fever, or any other disease that requires the physician rather than the surgeon, they cannot be received. The experience of every month confirms the desirableness of the Medical Missionary Society, soon to be organized, through whose agency and that of its friends, here and in Europe, it is hoped this desideratum may be secured. The most numerous classes of diseases during the last term, have been acute and chronic ophthalmia, cataracts, entropia, pterygia, nebulae, lippitudo, and granulations of the lids, as may be seen from the following table, which exhibits 1st diseases of the eyes, and 2d miscellaneous diseases.

1st: Amaurosis - - -	22	Closed pupil with deposition	
Acute ophthalmia - -	49	of coagulable lymph -	5
Chronic ophthalmia -	74	Proclaudia iridis - -	6
Purulent ophthalmia -	14	Glaucoma - - - -	2
Ophthalmitis - - -	6	Choroiditis - - -	4
Conjunctivitis - - -	4	Epiphora - - - -	6
Hordeolum - - - -	4	Granulation of the lids -	50
Cataract - - - -	62	Complete loss of one eye	49
Entropia - - - -	78	Loss of both eyes - -	53
Ectropia - - - -	3	Mucocele - - - -	6
Trichiasis - - - -	10	Muscae volitantes - -	3
Pterygia - - - -	35	Tumor of the lids - -	2
Opacity and vascularity		Imperfect cornea at birth,	
of the cornea - - -	28	the sclerotica extending	
Ulceration of the cornea	10	into its place - - -	1
Nebulae - - - -	59	Adhesion of the conjunc-	
Albugo - - - -	4	tiva to the cornea - -	2
Leucoma - - - -	7	Injuries of the eye - -	2
Staphyloma - - - -	22	Cancer of the eye - -	1
Staphyloma sclerotica -	2	Disease of the caruncula	
Onyx - - - -	4	lachrymalis - - -	2
Iritis - - - -	4		
Lippitudo - - - -	33	2d: Otorrhœa - - -	2
Night blindness - - -	1	Deficiency of cerumen -	1
Day blindness - - -	1	Deafness - - - -	3
Near sightedness - -	1	Disease of the lower jaw	1
Synechia anterior - -	11	Dropsy - - - -	2
Synechia posterior - -	3	Ovarian dropsy - - -	1
Myosis - - - -	5	Cancer of the breast -	1

Goitre - - -	4	Opium mania - - -	2
Sarcomatous tumors - -	2	Scrofula - - -	1
Encysted tumors - -	4	Paralysis - - -	2
Hernia umbilical - -	1	Hare lip - - -	1
Hydrops articulari - -	1	Epilepsy - - -	1
Rheumatism - - -	2	Stone - - -	1
Gout - - -	1	Stricture of Urethra - -	2
Phthisis - - -	2	Enlarged spleen - -	2
Aphone - - -	1	Arachnitis - - -	1
Dyspepsia - - -	1	Hepetitis - - -	1
Deaf and dumb children	3	Enlargement of parotid gland	3
Fungus hæmatodes of the		Fracture of radius and ulna	
arm (?) - - -	2	(one year) - - -	1
Ulcers - - -	1		

In diseases of the eye, and their treatment nothing special has occurred that requires notice. Several cases of tumors, are subjoined.

No. 2732. Encysted tumor. Wangke, aged 12 years, of Shuntih. This little girl is a slave, and was sold by her mother for \$ 8² or 10. She was accompanied to the hospital by her purchaser, a very respectable and well bred Chinese woman, who said the child was not her offspring, yet she felt for her the affection of a mother, and though the blemish had been a sufficient excuse for returning her to the mother, she preferred not to do so; and having heard of the hospital in Canton, was at the expense of time and money to bring her, with the hope of relief. She had an encysted tumor, about 16 inches in circumference at the base, situated upon the sacrum, and to the right side. Its pressure had produced some absorption of the sacrum, and caused the os coxycygis to turn outwards. It was moveable, and hard pressure gave it no pain. There was no weakness of the spinal column or of the lower extremities. After suitable preparation of the patient it was removed, and found to be attached by a peduncle of the size of a common quill, which entered one of the posterior sacral foramina. On dividing it, one of the gentlemen who assisted noticed a slight flow of milky substance from the point of attachment. A ligature was required to prevent the escape of the fluid from the tumor, which was distended with limpid contents resembling a bladder of water. The wound was dressed as usual. The child was in a subcomatose state for some hours after the operation, and slow in answering when spoken to,—perhaps from the opiate she had taken. In the evening and the next morning, her pulse ranged from 130 to 140, with considerable fever, and there was anxiety for the result. Calomel and rhubarb were given and brought away a quantity of large worms (lumbrici), and all her unpleasant symptoms subsided. The child's appetite became good, and the wound healed up by granulations in a little more than a month. She became the picture of health, and, with cheeks plump and rosy, was discharged at the expiration of six weeks.

No. 2550. Hare lip. Lan Atang, aged 17 years, of Honan, was disfigured by this congenital malformation, which extended up into

the left nostril, and two teeth projected out at the opening. These were removed and when the soreness subsided, the operation was performed. The union was perfect, and the dressing removed in about one week. Both the appearance and voice were very much improved.

An operation is sometimes performed by native physicians for this deficiency. It consists of applying an escharotic between the edges of the lip, and as this sloughs out, the lips of the wound are brought together and healed up by granulations. I have seen four cases in which the operation has been performed. In one instance the upper lip was drawn so tight as to form a straight line, and with the underlip projecting, his appearance was very undesirable. Whether this was the fault of the operator or the necessity of the case did not appear. In another man the lip was drawn askew.

No. 2982. March 13th. Chun Fang, son of the tsotang of Shuntih, aged 50 years, was born in Cheihle. In consequence of vice his general health had been affected. He had ulcers upon his head not affecting the cranium. Eight months previously they had been cured, and blindness supervened. When he came he could see light, but not sufficient to walk without being led. He was encouraged to expect relief from the severe pain he experienced, and that the progress of the disease might be arrested, and possibly his sight improved. There was congestion of the blood vessels of the eye. One dozen leeches, which in this country are very large, were applied below the eyes. Twenty grains of blue pill and one ounce sulph. mag. were prescribed. The leeches afforded immediate relief, and the patient expressed his surprize that he could see to count his fingers. March 16th. The sight remained improved. The leeches had produced a very great tumefaction of the left side and glands of the neck. As he was costive, an ounce of castor oil was administered, and warm fomentations applied to his face, with an opiate at night. March 29. Pulse 126. The right side of the face also affected; the swelling of the left subsided a little. Patient vomited five times last night. Large vesicles formed upon his ears, as if produced by a blister. The almost entire absence of redness did not suggest the erysipelatous nature of the disease. (Another patient who had been operated upon for entropia, and who had been discharged, returned about the same time similarly affected, with an erysipelas of a more aggravated character than I have ever witnessed. Both of these patients scarcely retained the appearance of a human face.) He was very weak, and had great difficulty of breathing, a dry cough, pains in the chest, tongue thickly coated and parched, and his bowels constipated. A decoction of lichen islandicus, gum-arabic, and liquo-rice, was ordered to be used freely. And a gargle of borate of soda, an ounce of salts, and an opiate, and warm pediluvium at bed time, were prescribed. The patient was to take congee or sago if disposed. March 30th. Decidedly better; bowels had been moved, and the same treatment was continued. March 31st. Patient unable to come. Difficulty of respiration, thirst, and debility, increased. His

extremities were cold, and face smaller,—as reported by his servant, a very intelligent man. One ounce of castor oil and a drachm of the oil of turpentine were taken immediately, and gave calomel xii grains, pulv. ipecac. vi grains, and sugar j ounce, divided into twelve parts, one of them to be taken hourly, and 30 drops of oil of turpentine every hour, and half a grain of opium every three hours—and two grs. of sul. quin. every two hours. The head was kept wet with a lotion of nit. potas., and the patient allowed to drink freely of the decoction of lichen islandicus, as usual. April 1st. The bowels were moved the last night—the patient has a little appetite—raised considerable sputa, tongue better, and his extremities not so cold. The erysipelas better, and the same treatment continued. April 4th. Not heard from the patient for three days. His servant reported him to be better. The disease had evidently subsided. He still complained of debility, and had a diarrhœa. Appetite improved. Decoction of lichen, and lotion of nit. potas. continued, together with oxymel of scillæ. April 8th. The patient was able to be brought to the hospital, but did not get out of his sedan. A course of tonic treatment was then adopted, first sulphate of quinine, and afterwards the saturated tartrate of iron. His servant occasionally returned to say he was convalescent.

While preparing the report the patient has returned, in his official dress, with presents, &c. He enjoys good health. He said he was to set out for Peking in two days, and wished for directions respecting his health and sight, in future.

No. 2986. Sarcomatous tumor. Chang Achun, aged 43 years, of Canton city, had a large sarcomatous tumor upon the right side of his face. It commenced five or six years since. He was a stone cutter, and was much incommoded in his occupation by this pendant tumor. On the 15th of April it was removed in 4 minutes and 56 seconds, and the patient put to bed in 20 minutes. It was 14 inches in circumference at its base, and still more round its centre. It weighed $2\frac{1}{4}$ catties, = 3 lbs. The wound healed almost entirely by the first intention. In nine days the dressings were all removed. The incision being made so as to bring the edges of the wound perpendicularly from the zygomatic process, down posterior to the external angle of the jaw, and thence parallel with it an inch below, quite to the chin, the face was very little disfigured.

No. 3000. April 17th. Lew Akin, aged 12 years, of Tsunchun, a village of Shuntih district, and the only child of her affectionate parents, had a streatomatous tumor upon the right hip, of a magnitude that required the patient to lean forward when she walked, in order to preserve her balance. Her health appeared good, except that she was much emaciated. In ten days she had made surprising improvement under a generous diet. On the 27th of April, the usual indemnity being given by the parent, the tumor was removed in two minutes and fourteen seconds. Its circumference (exceeding that of her body) was two feet at the base, and much larger at the middle: it was very slightly attached, and consisted of concentric layers of

fatty substance, separated from each other by a surrounding cerous membrane, till near the centre it was found of a much firmer structure, resembling cartilage. It weighed five catties, or seven pounds avoirdupois. Upon the third day, the dressings were changed: union had taken place to a considerable extent. In one week the whole was so far healed that the child was able to walk in the room without pain to herself or injury to the wound. She is now in good health, more fleshy than ever before. Since the first twenty-four hours after the operation she has experienced but little pain.—The feelings of the father were particularly noticed by the spectators at the time of the operation. He was in the room, but the unsightly wound that presented, as the integuments retracted ten or twelve inches apart, the incision being about ten inches long, was too much for the father to witness without tears. He left the room, but the cry of his little daughter, when the needle passed through the integuments in applying sutures, soon recalled him, as soon to retreat. His vigilance in his attention to his only child, continually, day and night, have strongly exhibited the strength of natural affections, equalled only by his gratitude for the relief afforded his daughter.—I am indebted to Lamqua, who has taken an admirable likeness of the little girl, and a good representation of the tumor. The more interesting cases that have been presented at the hospital, he has painted with equal success, and uniformly says, that as there is no charge for “cutting,” he can make none for painting.

No. 3122. April 17th. Anomalous. Chun Ato, aged 44 years, of Nanhae, has long been affected with apparently a nervous affection. Six inches below the left knee, and on the tibial nerve, a small pimple began, painful from the first. It is now elevated about two lines above the natural surface. For two years the pain has been intolerable: coming on by paroxysms, four, five, and even eight times a day. She had one of the paroxysms at the hospital, when she grated her teeth like a maniac. The spot from being level was drawn in at the centre, and a local perspiration came out for an inch around. When the surface of the spot becomes level the pain ceases. Pulse raised to 120 during the paroxysm. Her tongue was very good, howels free, and she has a common appetite. Under a tonic treatment she enjoys a slight palliation, the recurrence less frequent, the pains not so severe. A tournequet applied above and below the place, diminishes the pain. The patient is desirous of having it cut out.

The relief afforded to cataract patients, of which there have been more than in any preceding term, has been much as usual. The disturbance to the eye from the operation is ordinarily as slight as that of opening a vein in the arm.

The gratitude and confidence increase rather than diminish. An old Tartar general, who had been some time in the hospital, and who was operated upon for cataract with which he was affected in both eyes, as he was leaving said, “I am now eighty years old, my beard is very long (reaching his breast); I have been an officer forty years; and have been in all the eighteen provinces of the empire; but never

before have known a man that does the things that you perform, and for which you receive no reward. Oh, what virtue! the great nation's arm; under heaven there is no other like you;" and more in the same adulatory strain. It is a pleasure to go to the hospital at any hour of the twenty-four, and witness the confidence and kind feelings uniformly manifested by the inmates. Those who have received some especial benefit often seen to want language to express their gratitude. In some instances the blind of a distant village have united and chartered a passage boat to come to Canton, and have waited four or five days for the hospital to be opened to the admission of new patients.—Justice to my own feelings, require a public and grateful acknowledgment to the medical and surgical gentlemen, Messrs. Cox, Anderson, Cullen, and Jardine, who have so frequently and kindly afforded their counsel and assistance in important operations.

[Since the preceding was in type, we have seen some extracts from the Journal of Dr. Grant, written at Oormiah in Persia, during the early part of last year. The same eagerness for aid, and the same success, are witnessed there as here. Ladies and gentlemen, chiefs and noblemen, Christians and Mohammedans, came in great numbers, importunate for medicines. Many, and among them a son of the governor, were anxious to learn English. A young mīrza brought with him "one of Henry Martyn's New Testaments," given him by a French lady. We are glad to see such laborers coming eastward, and hope they will push forward to Central Asia.—We ought to add here, that, according to a statement published in the Register and Press dated the 11th instant, \$5,230 have been subscribed for the Medical Missionary Society. The Ophthalmic Hospital is supplied with the requisite pecuniary aid from this fund.]

ART. VI. *Remarks on the opium trade, being a reply to the rejoinder of Another Reader, published in the Repository for April, 1837.* By A Reader.

MR. EDITOR, Before entering on the merits of an article by 'Another Reader,' in your last number, a preliminary observation or two seems to be called for, just to teach 'Another Reader' the relative situation in which he and I stand to each other: my view of the case is, that we are in open arena, discussing an unadmitted point, with the public as our judges: he seems to fancy himself on a bench of justice, with a big wig on his head, and me pleading as a criminal. Did I condescend to argue so situated, I would, indeed, betray the cause I support, for when did judge and prisoner at the bar ever come off even in argument? Therefore let 'Another Reader' take off his wig, descend from his stilts on the bench, and step into the floor of the court, on perfect equality with me; or let him pass a sentence-unpled to, for which no one will care a straw. Suppose him then on a perfect

equality in the body of the court, even there his argument is at a disadvantage, because he and his coterie have brought an accusation of *crime* against a whole class of traders, founded on the supposition that opium is solely a destructive poison; unless therefore Another Reader proves this last averment, he has brought a *false accusation*, and the burden of strict proof lies on him and his party. And supposing any difficulty is found in proving such an averment, they should have been more cautious in accusing others of crime. I deny that he has made good his proof, and refer myself to the public!

Another Reader seems not to like my last article, because it was only three pages in length, and applies the epithet *meagre* to it; but some people read meagre, not as applying to want of length, but in opposition to force or strength; therefore, I leave it to the public, whether meagre is best applied to his own letter or mine: his, at least, is long enough! He also is so kind as to say that "*my positions are by no means judiciously chosen*;" so our readers will, in all cases, do me the favor to consider, with my opponent's consent, that my case is better than my arguments make it out to be.

But to the merits of the letter. They are twofold,—the averments of the men in its appendix, giving their respective opinions as to the harm the *abuse* of opium does to the human frame,—next an attack on Dr. Walsh, and on my view of opium-consumers, as supported by figures. First for his appendix. As my position is, that it is the excess or abuse of opium that constitutes the crime, not its *use*, there is hardly one authority in his whole appendix that is not a valuable evidence for me: to the point of over-quantity, every person in his appendix is a proof that, moderately taken, opium is perhaps the most desirable and least hurtful excitement used by man: these evidences, therefore, will show the consequences of excess, but they cannot give evidence as to what never comes before them of the millions who use it without harm, as a safe and grateful luxury. The police reports in London notice the drunken and vicious few, who intoxicate themselves and roll in the streets from abuse of strong drink; these reports cannot mention the millions who daily use wine and beer with hospitality and comfort, as harmless articles of nourishment. As to the many, these reports are entirely negative: and so the evidences in the appendix are entirely negative as to the *use* of opium, though quite decisive that it is *abused*, which never was denied. And all our proofs must remain in this state until we mix more with the Chinese, and understand them better.

Now for Another Reader's attack on Dr. Walsh. Not one in his list of evidences is more respectable, more listened to, or more worthy of belief, than Dr. Walsh; and not one on the whole list (not even Mr. Davis) ever had such advantages or opportunities in traveling through China, as Dr. Walsh had in Turkey, in which country, speaking the language well, he wandered in all directions, and lived in it for many years; every word he says in favor of the practicability of the *use*, as in opposition to the abuses, of opium, without injury to the human frame, stands unimpeached, and unimpeachable!

And in answer to some civil hints as to my trade, I hope Another Reader won't now find out that Dr. Walsh is an opium merchant. Whilst defending Dr. Walsh's general evidence, it may be as well to point out, what is however pretty obvious, the extreme want of fairness in giving a picture of the mad-house in Turkey, drawn in Anastacius, as a correct view of the state of those generally using opium: as well might the Piazzas of Covent garden, at two o'clock of a morning with a few reeling gin-drinkers, be taken as a picture of England: as well might a hell in the Palais-royal be held to represent all France: or a quadroon ball in New Orleans, be given as the general manners of the United States.—This is not a relative fact brought to support an argument, it is hyperbolical caricature—one in a thousand of opium-eaters finds his way to the mad-house: so with Another Reader, this one is to be taken for the other 999.

In my last letter I averred, that the emperor of China has no cause to fear the corruption of his army by opium; and brought an instance of a known class in India, who notoriously using opium, yet make good soldiers; when Another Reader finds out that other sepoy, besides this class, also fight well, I never doubted it; my case has to do with those men, who using opium, still fight well, and not with those who fight well without it.

The subject of most importance in a case like this, where proof is so difficult to be got at, is the table of quantity of opium, as compared with its consumers. My list, made out with the help of the best informed here, went to prove, that about half a million of those who abuse the opium could consume all the sea-borne drug: and as we see strong reason to believe that the number of smokers is vastly beyond this, the argument naturally arises, that a large proportion take it in quantities so small as not to be hurtful. And in this argument, the very large sum of money paid for it, year after year, bears us out; as a few hundred thousand, ruining themselves by excess, never could continue to yield such a sum; whereas if opium is an article of safe luxury to the rich and to the industrious millions, it would be easy to account for the sum produced. In answer to Another Reader, respecting the weight necessary to intoxication, I add two accounts, furnished me by those who should know. Another Reader is most singularly ill-informed when he withdraws the fair sex from the number of opium-users. Whether they abuse it or not, I have no proof; but I have the strongest reason to believe that both those of good and bad character do smoke opium.

I again repeat, I see no reason to depart from the view in figures, stated in my first letter, of the number of devoted smokers who could use the whole sea-borne opium. As to what is grown in China, no one can form any approximation to the truth.

When on this subject, I may mention the article VII, being the next in your list, namely, Sunqua's very clever set of pictures against the abuse of opium: they are highly moral and useful, and should be printed and distributed by thousands, in which avocation I should wish to see the £ 100 offered in the VIII article, expended; and I feel con-

fident it would do more good than getting up rival essays, which few will read. May Sunqua prosper! He uses the attendants of our great moral painter in captivating a Rake, namely, idleness, music, and women. Hogarth adds the exciter *wine!* Sunqua the exciter *opium!* I hope Sunqua may assist in putting down the *abuse* of opium, and so greatly add to its *use* and consumption.

Having thus given due credit to Sunqua, who attacks the *abuse*, I will produce one positive piece of evidence to prove the *use* of opium; and as Sunqua shows fortune, health, mind, and body, lost by its *abuse*; I will show fortune increased, health kept, and mind most actively employed, in the course of its use; and I convey to you, Mr. Editor, the name and residence of the party in a private letter.

In 1826, I found a Chinese comprador in possession of the confidence of a mercantile house here, and taking care of one of the best filled and most used treasuries in Canton, and rendering clear and satisfactory accounts to his employers. He smoked opium every day, and had then done so for seven years; he was then about forty. Last year he retired to his native district in perfect health, with a large fortune. Thus, in the use of opium, reversing Sunqua's pictures of its *abuse*. This compradore succeeded to no fortune, but kept health, and made a handsome fortune, *using* opium; Sunqua's example lost both in *abusing* it. The weight of opium daily smoked by the party here mentioned, and for the last ten years, without change, was two mace per day; and no one ever saw him intoxicated.

Men using opium, not drunkards, but attending regularly to business, are known in our neighborhood to use 2, 3, 4, and even 5 mace per day. I abide by my statement that a drunkard in opium will generally use a tael. The plain matter of fact is, there has been a great deal of mystification on this subject of opium; and its smuggling; even the clear-seeing *Marryatt* was deceived: in England it was considered dangerous, criminal, and connected with hourly loss of life—their only notion of an opium merchant being a trucculent looking fellow, dressed in a dread-naught coat, mounted on a fast-trotting horse, with a couple of chests of opium behind him, having just shot a preventive guardsman with each of his holster pistols. This nonsense has had its day, and a reaction has commenced, when men of thought perceive the absurdity of those conveying the most valuable production of the richest country in the world to its great consumers the Chinese, by any other mode than peace and good faith, and the still greater absurdity of a whole nation turned drunkards!

To conclude; Another Reader says, "I am anxious to identify myself with the honorable E. I. Company, rum dealers," *et id genus omne*. In argument, it is always fair to speak to a majority, and I believe in the appeal I made; I certainly spoke to a large majority of mankind; but those amongst whom I live will bear witness, that, without respect to majority, the attainment of *truth* is my object: yet the definition of what is truth I wont take either from the honorable E. I. Company, or from Another Reader my opponent.

Canton 1st May, 1837.

A READER.

P. S. *Weights and Prices.* One Canton authority informs me that ———, and ———, and ———, attending to their business, sober and diligent, who smoke two, three, and four mace per day. Another Canton authority carries the point of harmless use up to five mace per day. Lintin authorities state, that a devoted opium-smoker can easily use one *tael weight* per day, the price of which is \$1 $\frac{1}{2}$, ready for use. So a person using two mace incurs a daily expense of \$ $\frac{1}{4}$, which is a large sum for a Chinese, equal to 250 cash, the only coin in China.

ART. VII. *Canton General Chamber of Commerce: its regulations, with brief remarks respecting its origin, object, and labors.*

IN our third volume, while reporting the difficulties which followed the arrival of lord Napier, in 1834, we adverted to the existence of a "Canton Chamber of Commerce." The record of passing occurrences, which it was then our aim to give, did not require us to bestow on that institution any minuter notice. It was essentially and exclusively a British Chamber, which the want of a medium of communication between the British merchants and their superintendent, called into existence. On the retirement of lord Napier, this necessarily ceased, and the functions of the Chamber were now confined to the preparation of the usual statements of the trade. This useful service continued to be rendered by the secretary until last autumn. The opinion then became prevalent, that this institution might, with advantage, be exchanged for a "General Chamber of Commerce." A satisfactory expression of this sentiment having been elicited, a public meeting, on the subject, was called, on the 28th of November, and from this day we may date the formation of the "Canton General Chamber of Commerce."

At that meeting, two principles were adopted as the basis of the new Chamber; 1st, that the members shall comprise the most respectable resident merchants *of all nations*; and 2d, that its objects are purely commercial not political. These fundamental principles, as well as the minor propositions submitted to that meeting, were "carried unanimously." A second general meeting was held on the 9th of January, and the following regulations were adopted:—

1. The object of the Canton General Chamber of Commerce, is to protect the general interests of the foreign trade with China, to collect and classify useful information on all subjects connected with its commerce, and to establish a court of arbitration, for the purpose of adjusting all commercial differences and disputes which may be referred to it.

2. All merchants established in China, and others interested in trade, are eligible, at its formation, to become members of the Chamber, on the payment of the following entrance fee, and annual subscription, while resident in China, payable in advance, which sums shall be devoted towards meeting the requisite expense of the Chamber. Entrance fee for each firm \$50; annual subscription \$25; entrance fee for each individual \$30; annual subscription \$15.

3. All candidates for admission, subsequent to the establishment of the Chamber, shall be admitted on being proposed by one member of the General Chamber, seconded by another.

4. All visitors to China interested in trade may become honorary members for three months, on being proposed by a member of the committee, and seconded by another; no honorary members being entitled to vote.

5. The affairs of the Chamber shall be managed by a committee of thirteen, to be elected by ballot from among the members at a general meeting; and each firm belonging to the Chamber shall have two votes, and each individual one vote, on this and all other questions submitted to a general meeting; but not more than two individuals of a firm shall be entitled to vote on any occasion, and for the present, the committee shall consist of the following proportion of each nation: English 5, American 3, Parsee 2, Dutch 1, French 1, open to any nation 1.

6. Members shall not be allowed to vote by proxy, nor if their subscriptions, fees, &c., are in arrear.

7. It shall be imperative on parties elected, to serve, under penalty, in case of refusal, of \$ 100 for each year, when the party shall be again eligible, and in the same manner liable to fine for declining service, unless in all cases, a reason be assigned that is satisfactory to the committee.

8. The annual general meeting for the purpose of electing the committee shall be held on the first Monday in November, and six members of the former committee shall go out annually by lot, but be eligible to be re-elected; and in electing any new members the proportion of each nation shall be maintained, but it shall not be compulsory on a member to serve two years consecutively on the committee if re-elected.

9. No two members of the same firm shall belong to the committee.

10. The committee shall elect by ballot their chairman and deputy chairman, who shall *ex-officio* preside at all general meetings of the Chamber, but they shall never both be of the same nation.

11. Five members of the committee shall form a quorum, who shall meet on the first and third Saturday of every month, for the transaction of general business, and all questions shall be decided by the majority, the chairman for the time being having a casting vote beside his vote as an ordinary member. In the unavoidable absence of both chairman and deputy, a chairman for the occasion shall be chosen from the committee assembled.

12. It shall be imperative on the members of the committee in rotation to meet in order to constitute a quorum, failing which, a fine of \$5 to be paid on each occasion of nonattendance, unless a satisfactory reason be assigned, or a substitute provided.

13. The chairman or deputy shall have the power of calling a meeting of the committee when he shall see occasion, and it shall be imperative on him to do so, on a requisition being made to him from two members of the committee; but it is required that notice of such meeting and the purport be particularly expressed, and that such notice shall be delivered in writing at least three days before the meeting, unless on occasions of emergency, when it may be dispensed with.

14. On all occasions, a minority on a division in the committee shall have a right to state their reasons of dissent, in the record of the day's proceedings, when they may wish to do so; provided the same be done within forty eight hours of the closing of the meeting, and a certified copy of such dissent shall be granted them if required.

15. H. B. M's. Superintendents, all Consuls, and the honorable East India Company's finance Agents, shall be considered *ex-officio* honorary members of the Chamber.

16. In case of any vacancy in the committee, it shall be filled up *pro tem.* by the committee, until the general meeting on the first Monday of November, when the person so elected shall vacate his seat.

17. With the view of facilitating and expediting the business of the Chamber, the general committee may, when desirable, divide itself as follows: committee of correspondence, of arbitration, and of management.

18. The committee of correspondence shall take charge of all correspondence with foreign associations, the hong merchants, the Chinese government, and any other parties with whom it may be desirable to communicate. It shall also superintend the preparation of all statements connected with trade, &c.

19. The committee of arbitration shall be elected by ballot every two weeks; but their powers shall be continued so long as any business brought before them during their period of service is undecided; it shall appoint its own chairman, and confine its functions to cases where its interference and advice are requested, and on no occasion shall it proceed on any case, unless both the parties give an obligation that they will abide by the decision of the committee; and should the dispute relate to a sum of money, the whole, or such part thereof as the committee desire, shall be paid into the hands of such parties as they shall name, before they undertake to investigate the case. In particular cases they shall be authorised to accept security.

20. The chairman, or deputy, *ex-officio*, shall preside over the committee of management, which shall take cognizance of things connected with the funds or expenses of the Chamber; and provide a suitable place for the meeting of the committee.

21. A secretary and other officers as requisite shall be appointed by the general committee at fixed salaries, subject to the approval of the General Chamber at their next meeting.

22. An office shall be open daily from 12 to 3, where the secretary shall attend; he shall keep a journal of all proceedings, prepare statements of trade, and be ready to communicate with any members of the Chamber who may desire information or access to the records of the office.

23. Communications of every description shall be received and answered through the secretary, or chairman when requisite.

24. The chairman, or deputy, or in their absence any three members of the committee, or six members of the Chamber, shall be empowered to convene a general meeting, the secretary stating the purpose for which such meeting is called, three days previous to the day of meeting.

25. Funds to provide a suitable establishment and to defray requisite expenses, shall be raised in the following manner: 1st, by entrance fees and subscriptions: 2d, by fees and fines on arbitrations and references, as the committee may hereafter determine: 3d, by voluntary gifts and contributions, either in money, maps, books, or any thing which may be useful to the institution: 4th, by fees for certified copies of the records and other documents in the archives of the Chamber.

26. All orders for payment shall be signed by the secretary and countersigned by a member of the committee of management, and all accounts shall be audited annually and submitted to the inspection of the members of the Chamber.

27. In special cases, the Chamber reserves to itself the power of expulsion of any of its members by a majority of four to one, ascertained by ballot at a general meeting convened for the purpose.

28. These rules may be altered by a majority of two thirds at any general meeting convened for the purpose, fourteen days previous notice being given by the secretary, of the alteration intended to be proposed.

29. In the event of any question arising as to the construction or application of the foregoing rules, the committee shall be empowered to decide the same, submitting the matter to the next general meeting of the Chamber for its final decision.

30. The general committee shall make such regulations and by-laws as shall ensure regularity, responsibility, and despatch.

Persons familiar with these matters will recognise, in the above, the main features of the constitution of like bodies in Europe and America. To some of the members present, it appeared better to confine the sub-committees to deliberation and report, reserving *all decisions* to the general committee. To others, the admission of the official persons resident at Canton to honorary memberships, seemed a departure from the strictly commercial character of the Chamber. The above regulations were, however, adopted, and the Chamber organised. Under the superintendence of the secretary, the statements of the British trade have since been regularly issued. Statements of the American trade are also prepared, and will be printed the 30th proximo, the usual period of the year for closing the annual statements of that trade. That under other flags, will also be noticed, and thus a more full and accurate account prepared, of the foreign commerce of Canton, than we possess of any other commercial city.

While the secretary has been thus employed, a good deal has been done by the general committee. Resolutions have already been passed respecting the detention of vessels and goods at Lintin; the limitation of opium-orders; the charges on rice-ships; the cumshaws at Whampoa; the settlements of duties, in cases of dispute; the custom of the port as to receiving and delivering goods on the Sabbath, &c., &c.

The grievance felt by owners of ships in the detention of their grand chops; the regulation of the postage of letters; and especially the grand question of the responsibility of the hong, their present condition, and the prospects of the trade as connected with them, are yet under the consideration of the committee. The removal of the restrictions on the export of silk, the extension and improvement of the foreign factories, the acquisition of commodious and safe ware-houses, the formation of a repository of commercial information, &c., will, it is expected, in due time receive attention. The committee have not yet made public their resolutions, lest decisions, which still await the sanction of a general meeting, should be taken as already of final authority.

It is paying a compliment to the resident merchants to add, that their good understanding in their mutual transactions, has made light the labors of the committee of arbitration. We will only add, that the Canton Chamber has put itself in "communication" with the recently constituted Chamber of British India.

As a purely commercial body, wielding no power but that of concurrent opinions, the Canton Chamber of Commerce is not to be looked to, to originate or bring about great and rapid changes. Still we think it matter of congratulation, that by its creation, a number of our most intelligent residents are brought into regular and frequent sessions. From their meetings we may expect a definition of the hitherto uncertain usages of the port, and the introduction of many forms of practical amelioration; and we shall, with pleasure, notice from time to time, the progress of the Chamber, in its course of useful and honorable labor.

ART. VIII. *Journal of Occurrences. Traffic in opium; imperial envoy; manifesto respecting the merits of the emperor's ministers at court and in the provinces.*

SINCE the publication of our last number there have been but few local occurrences of importance. Nothing decisive has transpired respecting the admission of opium through the custom-house; the traffic, however, continues here and on the coast. An imperial envoy is reported to be on his way hither from Peking.

Edict, in the imperial hand-writing, dated the 27th of February, 1837. The triennial examination of merits is intended to promote and maintain the love of knowledge. All such ministers, whether Tartar or Chinese, as exert themselves with all their mind and strength to fulfil the duties of their several offices, should doubtless receive marks of distinction and commendation; while those whose abilities are of an ordinary standard, and who are incompetent to the performance of their official duties, can scarcely expect to be treated with indulgence. The period for making these examinations has now arrived, and the Board of Office has laid before us a statement respecting all our ministers at court and in the provinces, which statement we have carefully perused.

The cabinet minister Changling has strenuously exerted himself during a long lapse of years; he has reached the eightieth year of his age, yet his energies are still in full force. His colleagues Pwan Shengän and Muchangah, as well as the assistant cabinet minister Wang Ting, have invariably displayed diligence and attention, and have not faltered in yielding us assistance. Tang Kinchaon, president of the Board of Office, has knowledge and attainments of a respectable and sterling character, and has shown himself public spirited and intelligent in the performance of special duties assigned to him. She Cheyen, president of the Board of Punishments, retains his usual strength and energies, and in the performance of his judicial duties has displayed perspicacity and circumspection. The assistant cabinet minister and governor of Cheihle province, Keshen, transacts the affairs of his government with faithfulness, and the military force under his control is well disciplined. Hoosungé, the governor of Shense and Kausuh provinces, is cautious and prudent, and performs his duties with careful exactness. Elepoo, governor of Yunnan and Kweichow, is well versed in the affairs of his frontier government, and has fully succeeded in preserving it free from disturbance. Linking, who is entrusted with the general charge of the rivers in Keängnan, has not failed in his care of the embankments, and has preserved the surrounding districts from all disquietude. To show our favor unto all these, let the Board of Office determine on appropriate marks of distinction for them.

Kweisan, subordinate minister of the cabinet, is hasty, and deficient, both in precision and capacity; he is incapable of moving and acting for himself; let him take an inferior station, and receive an appointment in the second class of the guards. Yeihtsih, vice-president of the Board of Works for Moukden, possesses but ordinary talents, and is incompetent to the duties of his present office; let him also take an inferior station, and be appointed to a place in the first class of guards. Narkingé, the governor of Hookwang, though having under him the whole civil and military bodies of two provinces, has yet been unable, these many days, to seize a few beggarly impish vagabonds; after having in the first instance failed in prevention, he has followed up that failure by idleness and remissness, and has fully proved himself inefficient. Let him take the lower station of lieutenant-governor in Hoonan, and within one year let him, by the apprehension of Lan Chingtsun, show that he is aroused to greater exertions.

Let all our other servants retain their present appointments. Among them Taou Shoo, the governor of Keängnan and Keängse, is bold and determined in the transaction of affairs, but has not yet attained enlarged views in regard to the salt department; Chung Tseäng, the governor of Fulkeän and Chêkeäng, finds his energies failing; Täng Tingching, the governor of Kwangtung and Kwangse, possesses barely an adequate degree of talent and knowledge; and Shin Keheün, though faithful and earnest in the performance of his duties, has in common with these others, been not very long in office.

That all ministers will act with purity and devotedness of purpose, with public spirit and diligence, is our most fervent hope. A special edict.



